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OUR LANGUAGE

S USE

ND STRUCTURE

TAUGHT BY

ACTICE

ND EXAMPLE

PART II

THOS. R. SHEWELL & Co.

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OUR LANGUAGE

ITS USE AND STRUCTURE

TAUGHT BY

PRACTICE AND EXAMPLE

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PREFACE.

THE difference between Parts I and II of "Our Language" does not correspond to the difference between classes of higher and of lower grade, for the two parts are meant to accompany and supplement each other. Part I, therefore, is not an introduction to Part II, but is designed to provide for children such training in the ready use of good English as they can never get by the study of grammar alone.

Part II is really an elementary text-book in grammar. Beginning with the Sentence, the essentials of form and structure are so presented as to be thoroughly intelligible to children, for whom, of course, the whole book has been made. Abrupt transitions are avoided, and with a view to educating the reason as well as the understanding, an effort has been made to have each part naturally and logically connected with what precedes and what follows it. Each subject, moreover, is fully explained and illustrated, often by inductive exercises; so that no one will call the book a mere skeleton to be filled out with great labor and varying success by teachers. Thoughtful study of the sections in large type and of the illustrative examples will enable the learner without much further help to apprehend the most important principles and to apply them intelligently in the practical exercises which make up more than half the body of the book.

No chapter is entitled Syntax; but the construction of sentences is developed from the beginning as fast and as fully as practicable, so

that a child's acquaintance with verbs, for instance, is by no means deferred until he reaches the chapter so headed. Without intentionally omitting any essential principle, much that has been engrafted upon English grammar from other languages is left out as false or burdensome. The invariable basis of classification for the parts of speech is *use*, and for inflection it is *form*. Cases, for example, are always treated as *forms*, of which the noun has two, and a few pronouns three, the many *constructions* of these parts of speech being considered separately. In the direction of simplicity verb-phrases are distinguished from simple verbs.

For presenting the analysis of sentences to the eye, a new and simple method is followed. Its value has been thoroughly tested both in illustrative blackboard work and in the preparation of lessons by classes. It is easily applied to all ordinary sentences without re-writing them, or writing them in an extended form. For long or involved sentences other methods are substituted.

The infinitive and the participle receive fuller treatment than is customary, because, being as common and as important as other elements of the sentence, they ought to be equally well understood: and their construction has been developed with a view to making even children see that it is generally the same as that of nouns and adjectives. Without saying that the subjunctive should be abandoned or that it should be preserved, the fact is recognized that in a certain class of expressions nothing else can be used.

The sections that treat of derivation contain only the most elementary statements, but they are inserted with the hope that teachers will give their pupils the pleasure of using this key to the making and meaning of words.

Very little is said of idioms or of elliptical expressions. Such of them as are not too difficult for any but well-advanced students, can be readily explained by one who is familiar with the regular construction.

April, 1888.

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PART II.



CHAPTER I.

LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR.

1. Ever since we began to talk we have been learning the use of language; that is, we have been learning how to make other persons know what we want and what we think and how we feel, by **speaking** to them in words which they will hear and understand.

(a) As we grew older we learned to **write** our words for others to see and read; and in this way, if we were all deaf and dumb, we should still be able to use our language.

(b) Even if we knew nothing of spoken or of written language, we might express ourselves in part—but very imperfectly—by **looks, motions, or other signs**. Very many animals show their feelings by making the sounds peculiar to themselves, and we, in the same way, could cry and hiss and groan and laugh.

2. But mankind are gifted by nature with the power to change such simple sounds as the lower animals can make, into thousands and thousands of words, each with a different meaning. This power of speech or language requires the use of the **palate, the tongue, the teeth, and the lips**. Only man possesses it, and it gives him the most convenient way of expressing all that he feels, wishes, or knows.

The only other complete way comes from the use of writing, which was invented after men had conversed with one another for many years.

3. The letters which make up a written word merely stand for the sounds we make in speaking the word,—just as the spoken word stands for what we think; so that really we have two ways of using the same language.

The *tones* in which we speak often mean a great deal that it is very hard to put in writing.

4. The *Study of Language* is the study of words and of the proper use of them in expressing what we have to say.

5. Now, since different nations and peoples have different words and different ways of using them, there are a great many languages that we do not understand. But we are to begin with the study of our own, the English language, which, though spoken first only in England, is now used in many other parts of the world.

Our language is very different from what it was a thousand years ago; for it has been changing gradually ever since, and it is changing even now.

(a) English, of course, is easiest for us to learn; for young children always learn to use the language which they hear spoken instead of any other. Sometimes, however, they live where the people speak what is not *true* English, but a peculiar kind of English, such as is called a *dialect*; sometimes, too, they learn from persons who make many bad mistakes themselves; and sometimes children are very careless in their use of words. In fact, they are always liable to form wrong habits of speaking and writing, which it is necessary afterward to change and to improve.

6. *What we need to learn* then, is, first, to express ourselves readily; and second, to express ourselves correctly by using only such words as are used by the best speakers and writers of our time, and by imitating them in the way we put our words together.

The surest way to become skilful is by constant practice in correct speaking and writing. We should read books that are written in the best English, and we should study and imitate the ways of those who write them, and of those who speak the best English, so that we may use our language easily, as a good workman uses his tools, and so that we may be able to correct our own errors.

7. Besides doing all this, it will be well to understand a little more than we do about *words*, and to learn some of the *rules* for using them. For, although we do not think about rules when we are speaking, they will make it easier for us to study examples of good English, and to form correct habits ourselves. It is pleasant, too, to feel that we know about our language, and that we can reason about our forms of expression.

While studying language, then, we ought also to learn how our words are spelled and pronounced; how one has been made from another; how they are divided into classes; how their forms are changed; and how they are put together in sentences. This includes what is called **English grammar**.

The grammar of any other language would be different in many ways.

8. *Grammar* shows how words are made, how their forms are changed, and how they are put together in sentences according to their kinds.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Of what use is language? 2. What sort of language do animals use? 3. How is it different from ours? 4. In what two ways do we use our language? 5. Of what does it consist? 6. Of what are words composed? 7. What do we use besides the lips in speaking? 8. How do the dumb converse? 9. What is the Study of Language?

10. What languages have you heard of besides English? 11. In what countries is English spoken? 12. How do we first learn the use of language? 13. Whom should we imitate in our practice of speaking and writing? 14. Why do we need to do this? 15. What can be learned by studying grammar?

CHAPTER II.

THE SENTENCE: KINDS.

9. When we converse with one another, or write letters to our friends, we first have thoughts in our own minds, and then we show to others what they are by the words that we use; so that what we *say* depends on what we *think*.¹

EXERCISE I.

1. Think of something you did yesterday, and tell what it was.
2. Mention three things that happened in your last vacation.
3. What questions might a stranger ask in a city?
4. Ask two questions about your next vacation.
5. Say three things that you are asked to do by your teacher.
6. How would you ask for a book?

10. Each word differs from almost every other word in its meaning or in its use, and we select those best suited to express our thoughts.

If we were to go into the woods together, we might say,—

1. I should like to come here every day.
2. This path leads to the cliff.
3. Do the birds sing in the rain?
4. Are there any violets there?
5. Listen to the brook.
6. Come and sit under this tree.

¹ Throughout this book what is said of spoken language is generally to be applied in the same way to written language.

On a ship we should have very different thoughts, and we might say, —

1. The water looks very green.
2. I am very fond of sailing.
3. What makes the clouds seem so low?
4. Wouldn't you like to see an iceberg?
5. Come out on the quarter-deck.
6. See that steamer in the distance.

11. In each of these examples the words are so arranged that they have a definite meaning, and taken together they form what is called a **sentence**. Let us see for what purpose each of these sentences is used.

Read the first two sentences in each group. In these we say what we *know* or *believe*.

Read sentences 3 and 4. In these we do not say that anything *does* or *is* so and so, we only *ask* about it; and in sentences 5 and 6 we *request* or *order* something to be done.

EXERCISE 2.

1. Write two questions that might be asked after a snow-storm. Two commands that might be given. Two statements that might be made.

2. Write six more as if you were on a railway train.

12. Any other sentences we could make would do one of these three things, — assert, ask, or order. Hence we say that —

Sentences are complete assertions, questions, or commands.

EXERCISE 3.

1. Make a perfect copy of the twelve sentences given in § 10.
2. What is the meaning of "assert"?
3. Make assertions in answer to the four questions.

4. Make replies to the four requests.
5. Change the four assertions to questions.

13. When we speak and when we write we put our words together into sentences of one kind or another. If we use only single words, such as —

leads, like, are, birds, brook, path,

we do not really say anything; and if anybody speaks them, we can only wonder, "*Who* leads?" "*Who* like?" "*What* are?" "*What about* birds, brook, path, etc.?"

14. The same is true of every group of words that is not a sentence, even though the words may be arranged so as to have some meaning. For example:—

the clouds.	fond of sailing.
under this tree.	looks green.
school of fishes.	leads to the castle.
through the valley.	to the brook.
green with leaves.	has brought.

If we should read these expressions backwards, they would have no meaning at all; as they are, they might form parts of sentences: but they are not sentences, and they do not give any information, for they do not form statements, questions, or commands.

EXERCISE 4.

1. Think about each of these groups of words, and then tell whether it is a **complete sentence** or only **part of one**. Give your reason thus:—

"Green with leaves" is not a sentence, because it does not form a statement, question, or command.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. A fine October morning. | 5. None are brown. |
| 2. The leaves are red and green. | 6. The trees in the swamps. |
| 3. And some yellow. | 7. Very few flowers remain. |
| 4. Here are some purplish ones. | 8. All along the road to the pond. |

- | | |
|---|--|
| 9. Found twenty dead trees.
10. Some were girdled by mice.
11. Dry and brittle as pipe-stems.
12. We set them on fire.
13. O such a blaze!
14. The smoke filled the air.
15. A strong wind from the north-west. | 16. Let us try to find some nuts.
17. Are there any chestnut-trees in the grove?
18. Very few.
19. Bring your basket to-morrow.
20. If it rains.
21. Three gray squirrels in a hollow tree. |
|---|--|

2. **Change** those of the preceding groups that are only **parts** of sentences, into **complete sentences** by using additional words.

3. Tell in your own words what they are all about, as if you were **telling a story**.

15. We have seen that every sentence either asserts or asks or orders. Hence we say that —

There are **three kinds of sentences**. We call them assertive, interrogative, and imperative.

16. An *Assertive* Sentence states a fact or an opinion.¹

As: You speak correctly. You will learn to speak correctly.

17. An *Interrogative* Sentence asks a question.²

As: Do I speak correctly?

18. An *Imperative* Sentence gives a command, makes a request, or expresses a wish.²

As: Speak correctly. Please teach me to speak correctly.

EXERCISE 5.

1. After reading each of these sentences, tell whether it is **assertive, interrogative, or imperative**. Give your reason thus:—

"Cheer up" is an imperative sentence, because it gives a command.

¹ The use of suppositions, as, "If he come," is confined to clauses.

² Without being a statement.

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. Have you ever heard of Australia? | 7. Do you really mean it? |
| 2. That's a strange question. Of course I have. | 8. Tell me. |
| 3. Do not be provoked. | 9. How long should we stay? |
| 4. I am going there next month. | 10. Think how I should enjoy it! |
| 5. Should you like to be my companion? | 11. You <i>will</i> take me. |
| 6. Indeed I should. | 12. Won't you say yes? |
| | 13. O I must go! |
| | 14. Stop! |
| | 15. Remember how far it is. |

2. Listen to the reading of sentences by your teacher, and tell the kind of each as you hear it.

3. Classify the sentences in any of the subsequent exercises in this book.

4. What does "interrogative" mean?

19. Exclamations. Sentences of any of these classes may also be exclamatory; that is, they may also express excitement, surprise, or impatience. For example: —

ASSERTIVE: 'Tis false! There he goes!

INTERROGATIVE: Who would be afraid!

IMPERATIVE: Stop it! Keep your courage up!

EXERCISE 6.

- Which of the sentences in Ex. 5 are also exclamatory?
- What kind of sentence is each of these?

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Hark! | 5. Rouse, ye Romans! |
| 2. Who cares! | 6. May Heaven bless you! |
| 3. Do come here! | 7. What do you say, you rascal! |
| 4. We shall be so happy! | 8. Who would have believed it! |

20. Exclamations like—

How many colors the sunset shows!

What a long ride it would be to the moon!

seem to form a new class; but they are really shortened forms of command sentences, — See how many colors, etc. *Think what a long ride, etc.*

Exclamations of this kind always begin with *how* or *what*.

Put each of these exclamations into the form of a request to *see, notice, think*, or something of that sort:—

How the thunder roars! What a commotion it makes! What a strange ship that is! How it pitches! How you behave!

EXERCISE 7.

1. Which of these exclamations are sentences? To what class does each sentence belong?

- | | | |
|-------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| 1. There they go! | 4. See the snow! | 7. Wait a moment! |
| 2. A fine day! | 5. Good morning! | 8. Who would care! |
| 3. Hear the wind! | 6. What a shame! | 9. We are ready! |

2. What does "imperative" mean?

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Do we ever have thoughts without expressing them? 2. How can we express them except by words? 3. Have you seen in books any words that you never use? 4. Does it make any difference in what order we say our words? 5. How do we use sentences except to ask questions?

6. If a group of words is properly arranged, is it always a sentence? 7. How can you decide whether a group of words is a sentence or not? 8. What do we call sentences that give commands? 9. Those that ask questions? 10. Those that make statements? 11. Give an example of each kind. 12. When are a person's sentences likely to be exclamatory?

13. Read § 6, and tell, in your own words, how to become skilful in the use of language. 14. Read § 7, and then mention as many things as you can think of that may be learned *about* language.

CAPITALS AND PUNCTUATION.

21. When speaking, we ought to vary our tones and the length of our pauses, so as to make our sentences as expressive as possible. So in writing, we should always make our meaning as clear as we can, by using capital

letters in the proper places, and by dividing our sentences with marks of punctuation.

The following rules show us how to begin and end our sentences:—

22. Every sentence must begin with a capital letter.

23. An *assertive* or an *imperative* sentence must be followed by a period [.]

24. An *interrogative* sentence must be followed by a question-mark [?]

25. But a sentence of any sort that is also exclamatory, should be followed by an exclamation-point [!]

EXERCISE 8.

Copy these sentences, using **capitals** and marks of punctuation where they belong:—

there was a storm of sleet and snow yesterday the night was very cold is the road on the hill smooth enough for coasting bring your sleds we will go to see let the wind blow are you well protected shall we run to keep warm here we are at last what do you think of this couldn't I steer the double-runner see us go to the bridge across the creek give us a good start look out for the old stump this is a fine coast we came down in less than half a minute shall we try it again

EXERCISE 9.

1. Write the following sentences, using **capitals**, **commas**, and other marks of **punctuation** in their proper places. [See Pt. I., §§ 1-5.]

children we want you to go picnicking with us this afternoon you are to go home now ask leave to come to the pine grove toward germantown make haste do you think margie will consent there are nine of us going henry will you bring a hook and line we will get the bait tell ned have you ever caught butterflies with a net boys do you not think it is cruel sport ellen will you be cook all meet at the bridge at one can you walk all the way from home we shall come back before sunset do not keep us waiting girls be on time.

2. Read the five **assertive** sentences. Read the six that are **interrogative**. The six that are **imperative**.
3. What is the rule for using the comma in these sentences?

EXERCISE 10.

1. Write one assertive sentence about coal; one about charcoal; and one about coke.
2. Write an interrogative sentence about wool, cotton, or flax, using your teacher's name.
3. Write an imperative sentence addressed to a well-trained dog. To a stage-driver. To an army.
4. State a fact about the telescope.
5. Write a question to a friend about his health.
6. Make an order asking the grocer to send you something.
7. Write three assertive sentences about photographs.
8. Make an assertion about London.
9. Change this assertion to a question.
10. Address a question to a classmate about the equator.
11. Write what his answer might be.

EXERCISE 11.

Use the following words correctly in sentences, so as to make four of each kind:—

fatigue	sluggard	irrigate
resume	hero	nutritious
telegram	inquiry	compliment
permission	machinery	choir

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Do the tones in which people speak ever help you to understand them?
2. In speaking, how do we show where our sentences end?
3. How is it in writing?
4. Mention two uses of capital letters.
5. Make a sentence that would need an exclamation-point after it.
6. Give three rules for punctuation.
7. In spelling, what is a syllable made up of?
8. Syllables are parts of what?
9. What is a group of words that makes a statement?
10. What would you call a number of sentences on one topic?

CHAPTER III.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

A. THE SUBJECT.

26. Every assertive sentence must of course be an assertion *about something*. Whenever we make a statement, we say that *something* is or does so and so.

EXERCISE 12.

Read each sentence, and say what the statement is about.

- | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Embers glow. | 5. Dewdrops glisten. | 9. Candles flicker. |
| 2. Opals gleam. | 6. Sunsets flame. | 10. Torches blaze. |
| 3. Fire-flies glint. | 7. Lamps flare. | 11. Diamonds sparkle. |
| 4. Gold glitters. | 8. Lightning flashes. | 12. Stars twinkle. |

27. The part of the sentence that signifies *what we speak of* is called the **subject**. Thus, in the sentence—

Bees hum,

we speak of *bees*, and the word *bees* is the subject.

EXERCISE 13.

What is the **subject** in the following sentences? Give your reason thus:—

“Horses neigh.” In this sentence the word “horses” is the subject, because it represents that about which something is said.

- | | | |
|--------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 1. Sparrows chirp. | 4. Owls screech. | 7. Doves coo. |
| 2. Chickens peep. | 5. Crows caw. | 8. Geese cackle. |
| 3. Cocks crow. | 6. Larks sing. | 9. Hens cluck. |

28. In the following sentences the same statement is made about four different things:—

Butterflies find honey in flowers.

Honey-bees find honey in flowers.

Humming-birds find honey in flowers.

Burly bumble-bees find honey in flowers.

Read the subject of each one, and tell how many words are used in forming it.

EXERCISE 14.

What is the **whole subject** in each sentence? Give your reason thus:—

"The deep blue sea flows round the world." In this sentence the words "The deep blue sea" are the subject, for they represent that of which something is said.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. The ocean is bitter and salt. | 7. A polar bear could be seen amidst the ice and snow. |
| 2. The wind was dying away. | 8. The strongest ships are often crushed in the ice-floes. |
| 3. Large and small fishes came to the surface to breathe. | 9. Whale-fishing is a dangerous occupation. |
| 4. Several whales were spouting. | 10. D is the first letter of danger and of death. |
| 5. Seven icebergs were drifting past. | |
| 6. What sign of life was there? | |

29. The *Subject* represents that about which something is said.

B. THE PREDICATE.

30. In every assertive sentence something *is said about* one thing or another.

EXERCISE 15.

What is said of the objects named in each of these sentences?

- | | | |
|------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Clouds float. | 5. Hail rattles. | 9. Breakers roar. |
| 2. Rain falls. | 6. Water splashes. | 10. Billows roll. |
| 3. Sleet drives. | 7. Wind blows. | 11. Oceans surge. |
| 4. Snow drifts. | 8. Waves break. | 12. Tides flow. |

31. This part that states, declares, or asserts, is called the **predicate**. Thus, in the sentence —

Frogs croak,

the word **croak** is the predicate, because it stands for what we say about frogs.

EXERCISE 16.

What is the **predicate** in these sentences? Give your reason thus:—

“Lions roar.” In this sentence “roar” is the predicate, because it is used to say something about “lions.”

- | | | |
|------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Donkeys bray. | 4. Dogs bark. | 7. The sea is rough. |
| 2. Bears growl. | 5. Lambs bleat. | 8. The sails are rent. |
| 3. Wolves howl. | 6. Monkeys chatter. | 9. We drop anchor. |

32. In the following sentences four different statements are made about the same thing:—

Icebergs **melt slowly**.

Icebergs **come from the polar regions**.

Icebergs **drift with the polar currents**.

Icebergs **are very dangerous to commerce**.

Melt slowly in the first is the predicate, because it represents what is asserted of icebergs.

Read the predicates of the other three sentences, and observe that they consist of several words.

EXERCISE 17.

1. What is the **entire predicate** in each sentence? Give your reason thus:—

“The night was nearly spent.” Here the words “was nearly spent” are the predicate, because they show what is said about “the night.”

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. All nature was asleep. | 4. The sun had just appeared. |
| 2. Every leaf was still. | 5. Robins and bluebirds began to |
| 3. The dew was sparkling. | flutter about. |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 6. Gray smoke curled up from the chimneys.
7. The stage-horn sounded in the distance. | 8. A dusty drover was hurrying some sheep along the road.
9. Everything seemed to catch the spirit of the morning. |
|--|---|

2. Copy the sentences in Ex. 14, and draw a vertical line between the subject and the predicate, thus:—

The earth | moves round the sun.

33. The *Predicate* represents what is said about something.

C. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE COMBINED.

34. We have found that every assertive sentence has two necessary parts,—the **subject**, representing that about which the assertion is made, and the **predicate**, signifying what is asserted of the subject.

Two words therefore may make a sentence.

Interrogative and imperative sentences might be divided in the same way, but we study assertive sentences first because they are easier and more common.

35. A single word, such as **winter**, does not make a sentence, for nothing is said about winter. Neither does **comes** alone make a sentence, for there is nothing to show what we are talking about. We need the two together, as in **Winter comes**.

EXERCISE 18.

1. Make **predicates** for each of these subjects, thus:—

“Eyes *see*,”—and so on.

eyes		mouths		hands		wings
ears		teeth		feet		fins
noses		tongues		fingers		tails

2. Make subjects for each of these predicates, thus:—

"Lead sinks,"—and so on.

sinks.	drifts.	drive.	sail.
floats.	swim.	wade.	ripple.
freezes.	melts.	row.	dash.

36. If we use two assertive words, as *goes comes*, we have no sentence, any more than if we say *autumn winter*, for the two words must be of different sorts,—*one* that makes an assertion about what is signified by the *other*. As,—

Winter comes.

Autumn goes.

Sometimes two or more assertions are put together, so that we find one subject and predicate followed by another in the same sentence. As,—

Autumn goes and winter comes.

We shall study these combined sentences a little later.

EXERCISE 19.

Make sentences, using one of these words as subject and one as predicate:—

fishes	frogs	men	girls	monkeys
crawl	walk	trot	leap	chatter
worms	birds	boys	horses	ships
fly	float	swim	run	dance

37. We generally require *more than one word* to show what we wish to speak of. Thus, we may wish to say that—

Trees grow,

meaning trees in general; but if we wish to speak more definitely, we say,—

Those trees | grow, or

Those tall trees | grow, or

Those tall trees with arching branches | grow.

So, too, generally more than one word is needed to express what we wish to say about anything. Thus, we may say, —

The trees		grow, or
The trees		grow rapidly, or
The trees		grow rapidly this year, or
The trees		grow rapidly this year without care.

Hence the subject and the predicate may each consist of several words.

EXERCISE 20.

In each sentence tell where the predicate begins: —

1. A very dark bay horse was the winner of the race.
2. The greatest living English poet has lately arrived.
3. Nearly all the school children had danced at the fair.
4. The Man in the Moon is not a real man.
5. The House that Jack Built is the name of a story.
6. Alice in Wonderland is the title of a book.

EXERCISE 21.

Write predicates of *more than one word* for these subjects; that is, say something so as to make an assertive sentence: —

- | | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Stars | 8. Margaret | 15. The West Indies |
| 2. The sun | 9. Alfred | 16. A looking-glass |
| 3. The moon | 10. Honesty | 17. My photograph |
| 4. Humming-birds | 11. Kindness | 18. Oil-paintings |
| 5. Peacocks | 12. Anger | 19. Drops of water |
| 6. Squirrels | 13. The United States | 20. A boat on the lake |
| 7. Helen | 14. The Andes | 21. Huge waves |

EXERCISE 22.

Write subjects of *more than one word* for these predicates: —

- | | |
|------------------|------------------------|
| 1. are chirping. | 4. laid the wall. |
| 2. are buzzing. | 5. built the house. |
| 3. are croaking. | 6. made the furniture. |

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 7. is the President of the United States. | 14. are found in the woods. |
| 8. was a great general. | 15. float in with the tide. |
| 9. were an ancient people. | 16. live-upon flesh. |
| 10. shade the streets. | 17. are all used for food. |
| 11. shade the windows. | 18. are found in menageries. |
| 12. shade the women's faces. | 19. is a beautiful poem. |
| 13. grow in the conservatory. | 20. contained the advertisement. |
| | 21. was very neatly written. |

EXERCISE 23.

1. Write five sentences telling what happens —

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. On a rainy day. | 6. In autumn. |
| 2. In a menagerie. | 7. In church. |
| 3. On board a ship. | 8. During a sleigh-ride. |
| 4. On Christmas-day. | 9. In a coal mine. |
| 5. After a snow-storm. | 10. On a farm. |

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Explain what a statement or assertion is. 2. What are the two essential parts of every sentence? 3. Which is the more important? Give your reason. 4. How many words are necessary to make a sentence? Why? 5. Which part do you call the subject? 6. Why is the other part called the predicate? 7. Which part shows of what we are speaking? 8. Does it ever take more than one word to do this? 9. Why will not two asserting words make a sentence?

D. ESSENTIAL SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

38. If we think about the sentences we use, we see that the subject part is very different from the predicate part.

EXERCISE 24.

Which of these expressions might be used as predicates?

- | | | |
|--------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. the smoke | 5. covers the ground | 9. a delicate perfume |
| 2. over the valley | 6. morning mists | 10. will evaporate |
| 3. disappeared | 7. may settle | 11. smells very sweet |
| 4. poisonous gases | 8. was scattered | 12. of a furnace |

39. Some of our words, as —

John, eagles, dewdrops, courage, childhood,
are *names* of things, and, like him, I, you, etc., they cannot be used to
state or assert. But we see at once that *asserting* words, like —
catches, soar, glisten, strengthens, hastens,
are very different, and that we do not use them as subjects.

EXERCISE 25.

Which of these words are names of things? Which of them can
be used to assert?

raked	grass	pruned	wealth	fails
vines	awoke	seed	buys	believes
fields	wept	goods	lawn	poverty
sells	mowed	plowed	slept	succeeds

40. The complete subject of a sentence must always
contain one word that serves as a name for what we speak
of. The most of such words are called **nouns**. So the
complete predicate must always contain an assertive word
called a verb.

These are the necessary or essential parts of every sub-
ject and predicate, no matter how long they happen to be.

41. It is true that with these essential words we often use other
expressions, such as —

wise, large, for, bravely, in the sea,

to make our sentences more accurate or more definite; but we can
always drop them off, and leave the skeleton or most necessary part
of the statement remaining.

Thus, in the sentence —

The white snow | falls upon the fields,

the complete subject is —

The white snow;

but of these three words the necessary or essential one is **snow**, for
it names what we speak of more than either of the other words does.
We call it the *essential subject*.

So in the complete predicate, **falls upon the fields**, the essential word is **falls**; for it is the least that will make an assertion, and there would be no assertion without it. Hence, it is the *essential predicate*.

We could leave out all but these two words, **snow falls**, and we should still have a statement.

EXERCISE 26.

Lengthen each of these bare sentences by adding words to the essential subject and to the essential predicate, so as to make a fuller and more definite statement. Thus:—

"Trouble | arises." Serious trouble among friends | often arises from trifling causes.

- | | | |
|------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1. ivies grew | 4. carpenter built | 7. walls fell |
| 2. ships sail | 5. house stood | 8. windows looked |
| 3. pictures hang | 6. gale broke | 9. room contained |

EXERCISE 27.

1. In these sentences what is the whole or **complete** subject?

2. Find the bare or **essential** subject; that is, the one word that names what the assertion is about.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Our journey soon begins. | 6. Travelling by night seems dreary. |
| 2. The last day has come. | 7. The road to town is rough and steep. |
| 3. Many years of happiness are gone. | 8. For a week no friends will greet us. |
| 4. All the future is uncertain. | |
| 5. A cold, bleak wind is blowing. | |

EXERCISE 28.

1. In these sentences what is the **complete** predicate?

2. Find also the bare or **essential** predicate; that is, find the asserting word.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. The storm passed this side of the mountains. | 5. Something always happens unexpectedly. |
| 2. Our prospects brightened at once. | 6. The surprise gives us courage. |
| 3. We hoped for the best. | 7. The morning finds our journey ended. |
| 4. Time decides all questions. | 8. Who cares for wintry storms? |

EXERCISE 29.

Write these sentences; separate the principal parts by a vertical line; draw a *wavy* line under the essential subject, and a *straight* line under the verb, or essential predicate, thus:—

The leaves of this tree | fall every autumn.

1. The southern forests yield the largest timber.
2. The trunks of some trees measure several feet in diameter.
3. The elms resemble human beings.
4. Their arching tops almost speak to us.
5. Whispers come from groves of pine.
6. Their needle-like leaves make a luxurious carpet.
7. The sturdy oak stands for stability and strength.
8. The wood of this tree serves many useful purposes.
9. The lifetime of a tree depends in part on its surroundings.
10. A century in the forest makes a venerable giant.
11. Earth with her thousand voices praises God.
12. Bad habits gather by unseen degrees.
13. The paths of glory lead but to the grave.
14. The broken soldier talked the night away.
15. The king unstrung his chain of gold.
16. Such gallant act deserves a meed of praise.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Can all words be used as subjects? Tell the reason. 2. What sort of words can be used as predicates? 3. Do you know any name for words that can be used as subjects? 4. What name is given to assertive words? 5. What is the meaning of "essential"? 6. What is the essential part of every subject? 7. What kind of word always forms the essential predicate? 8. What two kinds of words will make an assertion? 9. Why are other words used in a sentence? 10. Point out the essential subject and predicate in "Cliffs of chalk extend along the English coast."

NOTE. *To the Teacher.*—Up to this point the term "subject" has been applied only to words, to signs, to *grammatical* subjects. The distinction between John and his name should be perfectly clear.

Hereafter the terms "subject," "predicate," and "object" will sometimes be used of the thoughts and things themselves as well as of the words that represent them.

CHAPTER IV.

KINDS OF WORDS.

42. Since we have studied the two most important ways of *using* words, we now know what the two principal *kinds* are.

Words *used to assert*, even if they have very different meanings, are all classed together as **verbs**; and when we speak of **nouns** we always mean words that can be *used as names*.

So, too, all other words are divided into classes according to the way we **use** them in making sentences. Hence we say that —

43. Words are divided into kinds or classes according to their **use** in sentences.

EXERCISE 30.

1. Write seven words that can be used as names.
2. Use each one with other words in making a sentence.
3. Write seven that can be used to assert, and make sentences with them.
4. Tell the use of each of the words in Ex. 25.

I. NOUNS.

EXERCISE 31.

1. Mention five kinds of birds; of fur-bearing animals.
2. Name five things you have seen in a store; at a fair.

3. Name five things to be seen at the seaside, or by a river. Name five to be seen —

On a ship. Among mountains. On a farm. In a mill.

4. Name several things to be heard —

On the street. When travelling. In church. In the night.

5. What are four things that make —

A good scholar? A good soldier? A boy's character? A poor scholar?

44. About half the words in our language are alike in one respect; that is, they are names of things, and are therefore called **Nouns**.

EXERCISE 32.

1. Examine these sentences carefully, and mention every name or **noun** that you find:—

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. The garden is brilliant with daffodils and tulips. | 8. The merry shouts of children fill the air. |
| 2. Their beauty depends much upon their colors. | 9. What report did the messenger bring? |
| 3. This brook is full of fine trout. | 10. The breeze brings the odor of the flowers. |
| 4. "Poor Richard" was born in Boston. | 11. Pain teaches men patience. |
| 5. Hear the jingle of the sleigh-bells. | 12. Hope was followed by despair. |
| 6. A cry of joy rings through the land. | 13. Our guide had no fear in times of danger. |
| 7. How delicate the perfume is! | 14. Innocence is the charm of childhood. |

2. Which of the nouns denote something that has weight?

45. Some nouns stand for such things as can be seen; as, —
daffodils, beauty, Richard, Boston:

others for what we hear; as, —

jingle, cry, shout, report.

Some for what we can only smell; as, —

fragrance, odor, perfume:

others for what can be felt in some way; as, —

breeze, pain, heat, fear, despair:

and when we come to think more about all such things we find use for many other nouns; as, —

innocence, charm, childhood.

Arrange all the nouns in the last exercise in five lists as in § 45.

46. A *Noun* is a word used as the name of something.

The word "noun" means just this: the *name* by which a thing is *known*.

EXERCISE 33.

1. Make a list of ten vehicles that run on wheels.
2. What names are given to structures in which men live?
3. Name some things that are found in the earth.
4. In what different craft do men travel by water?
5. Name as many as you can of the parts of a ship.

47. An assertion may be made about anything we can name, and so any noun may be the subject of a sentence. But we often use the name of something about which we do not make any statement, and so we may have in one sentence many nouns besides the subject. Thus: —

This steamship | has two red paddle-wheels, a black stack for the smoke, and three tall masts without sails.

Here **steamship** is the subject, and the complete predicate is a long one containing five nouns. What are they?

EXERCISE 34.

1. Which of the nouns in Ex. 32 do not belong to the subject?
2. Tell how many nouns are used in each sentence in Ex. 14.
3. Write sentences, using **three** of these nouns in each one: —

flock	raven	fox	thief	wings
geese	piece	tail	home	flapping
trees	cheese	brush	dinner	noise

48. When the complete subject contains the names of several things, we must be careful to distinguish the one *essential* word which if it stood alone would still name the subject. Thus, in the sentence —

The famous palace of the kings of the Moors at Grenada, in Spain, | was called the Alhambra,

we have five nouns in the complete subject; but we see that it is the **palace** that is said to have been called the Alhambra. The other words are added to show *which* palace is referred to.

EXERCISE 35.

1. Make a list of the twenty-five **nouns** in these sentences. Draw a wavy line under the eleven used as **subjects**.¹

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. The darkest clouds bring rain. | 7. At night the moon could not be seen. |
| 2. The leaves of the trees rustled in the wind. | 8. The trees along the river were torn up by the roots. |
| 3. Great clouds of smoke were floating in the air. | 9. The birds' feathers were wet and dripping. |
| 4. The rays of the sun were almost entirely obscured. | 10. The brooks on the mountains were swollen to torrents. |
| 5. A dim light came in at the windows. | 11. A wooden bridge near the town was carried away. |
| 6. Our tasks were left undone. | |

2. Write an account of a severe storm.

EXERCISE 36.

1. Make a list of **nouns** that designate the members of a family or other relatives.
2. Give ten nouns that designate people according to their trades.
3. Name the different parts —
of a wagon; of a bird; of a book; of a watch; of a church.
4. Name some things made —
of glass; of leather; of paper; of steel; of snow; of stone.
5. Mention the names of several games; virtues; vices; diseases.

¹ While studying grammar we will use the word "subject" to mean the "essential" subject.

EXERCISE 37.

Here are twenty hard words. Select the ten that are nouns, and give their **meaning**.

intelligent	buoyant	synonym	wholesome
microscope	telephone	timorous	epitaph
acquiesce	telegraphic	rheumatism	mysterious
macaroni	hypocrite	sympathize	mistletoe
buoy	powerfully	aeronaut	desecrate

EXERCISE 38.

1. When words are synonyms, do they have the *same* meaning or only *similar* meaning?

2. Copy these nouns, uniting into groups by themselves all that are **synonyms** for one another:—

flag	might	narrative	parson
source	tale	minister	anecdote
fight	cause	story	terror
fear	banner	combat	power
origin	fright	alarm	battle
clergyman	strength	ensign	force

EXERCISE 39.

1. **Rewrite** these sentences using **different** nouns in every case. Choose **synonyms** when you can.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. The scholars need careful in-structors.
2. The messenger came up the avenue in great haste.
3. The waves dashed the vessel against the pier.
4. Liberty is better than slavery. | 5. Wisdom is more precious than rubies.
6. Yonder church has a tall spire.
7. Is not honesty better than deceit?
8. The way of the transgressor is hard. |
|---|---|

2. Which of the nouns name material objects such as have weight?

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. What are the two most important kinds of words? 2. How do we tell to which class a word belongs? 3. What is an asserting word called? 4. Explain why we need to use nouns in speaking. 5. Find five that stand for what we cannot see, nor hear, nor touch. 6. How many nouns are there in the complete subject? 7. Which is the most important one, and how can it be found?

II. PRONOUNS.

EXERCISE 40.

1. In these sentences:—

Mr. Richardson was a wealthy man. **He** kept many horses. **These** were **his** favorites. **They** lived in a fine stable. **It** was like a dwelling-house,—

who is meant by **he**? What by **these**? By **his**? By **they**? To what does **it** refer?

2. Copy the sentences, using these other words instead of **he**, **they**, etc., but without changing the meaning.

3. Which do you think is the better way to make these assertions? Give the reason.

4. Mention all the nouns in your copy.

49. Besides nouns, there are a few other words such as **he**, **these**, **they**, **it**, that often stand for that which we have just mentioned, no matter what it is.

Thus, if any one said,—

The President has inspected the Navy,
he might add,—

He found it in fair condition;
but he would not repeat the nouns, and say that,—

The President found the Navy in fair condition.

So when we point to a thing we generally use a word of this sort instead of calling it by name.

EXERCISE 41.

1. In the sentence, "He found it in fair condition," how do we know what *he* and *it* mean?

2. How would you know what was meant by *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*, if any one should say to you:—

These are good for nothing. **That** is very valuable. **This** cannot be bought elsewhere. **Those** sell very readily.

50. Such words are called **Pronouns** because they take the place of nouns; and we always prefer to use them if only we can be understood.

EXERCISE 42.

1. Try to **improve** the following by using other words instead of repeating the nouns:—

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The people were returning from work. | 4. One woman was very ill. |
| 2. The work was very hard. | 5. This woman was being carried by the woman's husband. |
| 3. The work seemed to make the people weary. | 6. The husband was the town-crier. |

2. If Jane were speaking to John, would she say, "John surprised Jane," or, "You surprised me"?

3. If Carl were greeting his friend William, what would he say instead of "Carl is glad to see William"?

51. When we speak or write to a person, we do not keep referring to him by name; we say *you*, instead: and when we say anything about ourselves, we never think of using our names; for, no matter what they are, we almost always say, *I*, *me*, *myself*, *we*, *us*, and so on.

Thus, we should say, —

I wish **you** would come to see **me**,
and the reply might be, —

We shall be glad to have **you** entertain **us**.

Here there are no nouns, — nobody is mentioned by name; but the meaning would be very clear to those who were present.

Try to substitute names, and you will see how convenient the pronouns are.

EXERCISE 43.

1. Select the **pronouns** in these sentences; that is, the words used instead of nouns: —

- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| 1. The doctor is coming. | 6. It was perfectly white. |
| 2. Call to him. | 7. They seemed to me to be frozen. |
| 3. Have you improved? | 8. The nurse was with us. |
| 4. Yes; I feel quite well. | 9. She warmed them by rubbing. |
| 5. Early this morning I could see your arms stretched out over the snow. | 10. You must thank her. |
| | 11. We are very glad. |

2. Which of the pronouns are used as subjects?

52. When we do not know the name of a person or a thing, we have to use a pronoun in asking questions. Thus we say, —

Who brought the news?

Which did you say?

What caused the fire?

Whom shall we blame?

Whose was the house?

EXERCISE 44.

1. Write assertive sentences in answer to the preceding questions.
2. What words have you used in place of the pronouns?
3. Write imperative or interrogative sentences, using **two** of these pronouns in each one: —

I,	me,	we,	us,
myself,	mine,	ourselves,	ours.

Which of these refer to the person speaking?

4. Make a list of pronouns that refer to some person or thing that has just been mentioned. Consult Exs. 40, 41, and 43.

53. (a) Every one of the thousands of nouns in our language, and every expression, however long, that is used like a noun to describe a person or a thing, can be replaced at one time or another by pronouns.

(b) The use of them enables us to point out what we have been talking about more exactly than we could by taking the trouble to describe it again.

(c) They form a class by themselves because their meaning depends upon the connection in which they stand; but they are used as subjects' and in other ways very much as nouns are.

EXERCISE 45.

In these sentences give the whole expression that each pronoun takes the place of:—

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The sail down the river was very pleasant. | 6. Two of them were very exciting. |
| 2. It occupied about nine hours. | 7. His first vessel was a brigantine of six hundred tons. |
| 3. We met several fine yachts. | 8. She foundered off the coast of Jamaica. |
| 4. They seemed to be racing. | 9. He told us how he was forced to abandon her. |
| 5. The captain of the steamer told many of his adventures. | |

54. A *Pronoun* is a word that may take the place of a noun, and represent any person or thing as present or just mentioned.

The word "*pronoun*" means *for a noun*.

EXERCISE 46.

1. Use suitable pronouns in place of the nouns that are not needed.

1. Arnold's treason showed that Arnold was base at heart.
2. The arc of a circle is any part of the circle's circumference.
3. We must harvest the crops before the crops freeze.

4. The queen gave the queen's orders to the captain; and the captain, on receiving the orders, promised to save the town.

5. Afterward the queen rewarded the captain for the captain's bravery in defending the town.

6. Patrick Henry said, "Give Patrick Henry liberty, or give Patrick Henry death."

2. Make sentences containing the pronouns *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. What are pronouns? 2. Explain one of the ways of using them.
3. Why are they often more convenient than nouns? 4. How do you tell what is meant by a pronoun?

III. VERBS.

EXERCISE 47.

1. What are assertive sentences? Give an example.
 2. What are the other kinds? Make a sentence of each kind.
 3. Explain the meaning of "assert."
 4. Make assertions about five things that you see.
 5. Which of the following are assertive? Are they sentences of any sort? Tell your reason.
- | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Squirrels in hollow trees. | 3. We chestnuts in October. |
| 2. The sap in the spring. | 4. The ice thick enough to bear. |
6. Make assertive sentences of them by using *live*, *flows*, *gather*, *is*.
 7. Change them to interrogative sentences.

55. Words used to assert are Verbs.

They are not as numerous as nouns, but they form an equally important class, and most other words have been derived from them.

56. To make a complete sentence we need only give the *name* of something, and say or *assert* something about

it. With a *noun* or a pronoun and a *verb* we can do just this. As,—

Flowers fade.

Grass withers.

I command.

They obey.

Without a verb there can be no assertion, — no predicate, — no sentence.

EXERCISE 48.

1. What kind of word will make sentences of the following? Supply what is needed.¹

1. Rubber from South America.
2. The pure gum very valuable.
3. Water the wheels of the mill.
4. The cotton-plant in the Gulf States.
5. A letter three thousand miles for two cents.
6. The Gulf Stream northeast.
7. Behring Strait the Arctic and the Pacific oceans.
8. The signal service a fair day to-morrow.
9. The snow ten feet deep in the woods last winter.
10. The boys all hunting yesterday.
11. The fox by hiding under a rock.
12. Trout-fishing considerable skill.

2. Mention the verbs in Ex. 29.

57. The verb may be a *single word* that asserts; as when we say, —

The tree | **grows**, meaning *now*, or

The tree | **grew**, meaning *some time ago*.

But if we wish to speak of time to come, we must say, —

The tree | **will grow**;

and in all these sentences, —

The tree | **is growing**.

¹ Exercises of this sort should be repeated till the function of verbs is distinctly felt.

The tree | **has grown.**
 The tree | **would have grown.**
 The tree | **may be growing.**
 The tree | **might have been growing.**

we need the help of one, two, or three *other* words besides **grown** and **growing**, in order to assert what we mean about the growth of the tree.

The words of each group taken together we call a **verb-phrase**, because they do the work of a single verb.

EXERCISE 49.

Select the expressions of more than one word that take the place of single verbs; that is to say, the **verb-phrases**.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The message was brought an hour ago. | 7. We might have kept Nero. |
| 2. We had hoped for better news. | 8. It is too late now. |
| 3. But we must lose no time. | 9. Perhaps we shall meet them all at Castleton. |
| 4. The best horses have been sent over the turnpike. | 10. Saddle your horses at once. |
| 5. They may overtake the party. | 11. The back road will be safest. |
| 6. Otherwise nothing but failure awaits us. | 12. I should inquire for them at Newbury. |
| | 13. They must have gone early. |

58. Contractions. The first word of those that help to make a verb-phrase, is sometimes written so as to show that we cut it short in speaking. Thus, —

We've met him, for We have met him.

EXERCISE 50.

Copy these expressions, writing out the verbs in full, as if they were to be spoken slowly:—

- | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I'm sorry. | 5. It's too late. | 9. They'd just gone. |
| 2. She'll come. | 6. We're here. | 10. She's waiting. |
| 3. Time's up. | 7. You've heard. | 11. You'd be surprised. |
| 4. I've done. | 8. Who's come? | 12. We sha'n't stay. |

59. A *Verb* is an asserting word or phrase.

The word "verb" means *word*, — *that which is spoken*.

60. A Verb-phrase is a group of words used as a single verb. Verb-phrases are often called verbs.

We shall learn sometime that many other groups of words used like single words are also called *phrases*.

EXERCISE 51.**1. Select the single verbs and the verb-phrases.**

1. The air thickens. 2. Familiar objects are hidden as by a mist.
3. Paths disappear. 4. Voices of teamsters are heard. 5. Nothing can be seen in the road. 6. Like a fog the snow hides all things.
7. Not a breath of wind disturbs its descent. 8. The branches of the trees are clothed as with wool. 9. Still the noiseless flakes fill the sky. 10. A change has taken place. 11. Now and then a puff of wind comes around the corner. 12. The storm is growing wilder every moment.

2. Write a description of a snow-storm.**EXERCISE 52.**

Fill the blanks with suitable verbs as you read these sentences:—

1. Twenty-nine years ago Christinas — on Saturday. 2. How well I — the time! 3. Such dreams as I — in those days! 4. The Thursday night before, I — about Santa Claus. 5. In a low whisper he — to me thus:— 6. "To-morrow, my little maid, you — to sleep early. 7. And — very soundly till morning. 8. Before sunrise I — — with a fir-tree for you. 9. But you — not — your secret to any but your sister." 10. At last the wished-for morning —. 11. All the stars — — brightly. 12. The crystals of snow upon the ground — like diamonds. 13. Through all these years I — never — my exquisite delight. 14. After our arrival at my uncle's across the road, some folding doors — suddenly — open wide. 15. There in a blaze of light — the bright vision of my dreams. 16. How the candles —! 17. And how we — — at the sight of such dolls and such gowns!

61. It very often happens, as in these sentences, —

The **man** has a son. They **man** the boats.

that there is no difference in the spelling of two words, one of which is a noun and the other a verb: and we must remember to decide about them by their *use*.

EXERCISE 53.

Distinguish between the **nouns** and the **verbs** that are spelled alike in these sentences. Thus:—

"Pass" in first sentence is a *verb*; "pass" in the seventh sentence is a *noun*.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Pass through here. | 7. Fear not the pass. |
| 2. Order a load of stones. | 8. He drives without fear. |
| 3. Load them with care. | 9. He hands me a whip. |
| 4. They work with their hands. | 10. He dogs me while at my work. |
| 5. They care not for play. | 11. We whip them by your order. |
| 6. He stones the stray dogs. | 12. They play during my drives. |

EXERCISE 54.

Write sentences, using each word once as a **noun** and once as a **verb**, as in § 61.

heat	fly	hope	milk	point
chain	rock	water	fan	deck
stand	fall	iron	lap	strap

EXERCISE 55.

Make little groups of the words that are **synonyms**.

help	hesitate	relieve	leave	assault
besiege	withdraw	assail	glorify	depart
honor	assist	delay	pause	applaud
aid	wait	praise	attack	retire

EXERCISE 56.

Substitute other words for those in *italics* without much changing the meaning.

The man *informed* me just now that he had *completed* his task, and *asserted* that he never would *labor* for me again. When I *inquired* for the reason, he *replied* that he had *stated* the reason already. I *bade* him *depart*; for I *desired* to conceal my wrath before the ungrateful fellow.

EXERCISE 57.

Select one of the following topics, and write **five short sentences** about it. Draw a *wavy* line under the subject, and a *straight* line under the verb.

1. A thunder-storm.
2. Getting breakfast.
3. Making hay.
4. A game of ball.

5. Taking a photograph.
6. A bicycle ride.
7. A drive in the country.
8. A ride to the city.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. What is the use of verbs in sentences? 2. What do you call a verb that consists of several words? Give three examples. 3. What is the difference between "I'll do it" and "I will do it"? 4. What besides a noun may be the subject of a verb? 5. Define *verb* and *verb-phrase*. 6. Mention several words that can be used either as verbs or as nouns.

IV. ADJECTIVES.

62. We must have seen that most sentences are made up of *something more* than a *noun* (or a pronoun) and a *verb*.

It is true, of course, that the very shortest ones *may* give us some information about their subjects. For example: in

Ice breaks and Diamonds glitter,

ice and *diamonds* are described a little; but nobody wants to say, —

Ice is or Diamonds are,

for these verbs *is* and *are* do not tell us anything worth saying.

We have to add the **descriptive** words, thus :—

Ice is brittle .	Diamonds are brilliant .
Ice is cold .	Diamonds are scarce .
Ice is transparent .	Diamonds are costly .

Without these additions the predicate seems incomplete.

EXERCISE 58.

1. Which are the **descriptive** words in these sentences? What is described by each of them?

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. My roses are yellow. | 11. Your rabbit is shy. |
| 2. The sky was clear. | 12. I am hungry. |
| 3. The path will be narrow. | 13. She can be careful. |
| 4. The day had been cold. | 14. We should be generous. |
| 5. My answer may be wrong. | 15. My friend looks ill. |
| 6. They seem anxious. | 16. The milk has become sour. |
| 7. The night grows dark. | 17. The knives must be sharp. |
| 8. Are you tired? | 18. He appears wise. |
| 9. Will the ice be strong? | 19. That velvet feels smooth. |
| 10. Thou art mighty. | 20. He arrived safe. |

2. Could the descriptive words be used like nouns as the subject of a sentence? Tell the reason.

3. Change these expressions to **assertions**; then change them to **questions** :—

- | | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. yellow gold | 3. lofty mountains | 5. dull knife |
| 2. eloquent orators | 4. fierce tigers | 6. skilful doctors |

EXERCISE 59.

Make assertions, using with the verbs words **descriptive** of these subjects. Thus :—

"Foxes are *cunning*."

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Foxes —. | 7. The pears in my orchard —. |
| 2. The use of tobacco —. | 8. Our country —. |
| 3. Rosewood —. | 9. That well —. |
| 4. The music —. | 10. Yonder mountains —. |
| 5. Some clouds —. | 11. My kitten —. |
| 6. Your clock —. | 12. Country roads —. |

EXERCISE 60.

What could these words be used to describe? Thus:—

"The fire was disastrous."

brave	brisk	disastrous	sorrowful	brilliant
feeble	noisy	wild	heavy	useless
clear	charming	uncertain	tiresome	late

63. Even when we use a verb that does not require something to be added, as in —

Roses grow,

still we commonly wish to tell what kind of roses is meant, and how, or where, or when they grow. Thus:—

Yellow roses grow by still rivers.

"Roses" alone would remind us of prickly bushes and the well-known flowers. We could only guess about their color. But the *descriptive* word adds something more, as much as to say,—"the roses are **yellow** that grow there,"—not pink, nor white, nor crimson.

They may have had many good qualities and some bad ones, but **yellow** shows that they had at least the quality of yellowness. **Still**, also, shows that one of the qualities of the rivers was *stillness*. If we had wished to show that depth and width were other qualities, we might have said *deep* rivers or *wide* rivers.

EXERCISE 61.

What descriptive words can be used with these nouns to imply that they have the **qualities** set opposite them? Thus:—

"Timber is strong." "Horses are swift."

1. timber	strength	7. wagons	weight
2. coals	heat	8. clothing	warmth
3. poles	length	9. flowers	beauty
4. grass	dampness	10. children	truthfulness
5. horses	speed	11. tigers	ferocity
6. kings	power	12. princes	wealth

64. Words of this sort are called **Adjectives** because they describe a person or a thing by *adding* some quality to the name that is used; that is, they **describe** or **qualify** what is mentioned.

EXERCISE 62.

1. Which words in these sentences are used with a noun to **describe** the object it represents by **adding some quality**?

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Kind friends have come. | 13. White, fleecy clouds are in the blue sky. |
| 2. They brought us purple grapes. | 14. I see a large grasshopper on a pointed leaf. |
| 3. Black clouds turn to rain. | 15. He has eaten a small, round hole in it. |
| 4. Rolling stones gather no moss. | 16. My tapping on the leafy bough stops his merry song. |
| 5. Grangers gather golden grain. | 17. Then a green locust begins with a loud buzz. |
| 6. Studious boys make intelligent men. | 18. The limp grass would be revived by a gentle rain or a heavy shower. |
| 7. Fairest flowers will fade. | |
| 8. Absent friends forget us. | |
| 9. Little leaks sink great ships. | |
| 10. Old wood makes the best fire. | |
| 11. Sound health is long life. | |
| 12. It is a warm day in July. | |

2. Copy ten of these sentences, underlining subject and verb. **Enclose adjectives** that qualify the subject in curves. Thus:—

(Kind) friends have come.

EXERCISE 63.

Make lists of four adjectives each that may be used to qualify, —

iron	road	trees	coal	grapes
sponge	desk	rope	watch	ship
river	gold	farm	tar	sea

65. An adjective, then, may be used in **two ways**:—

1. We may make it a part of the predicate so as to assert that the subject has a certain quality; as, —

The meadows are **fertile**. Or, —

2. Without using it as part of the assertion we may make it add to what the noun alone would mean ; as, —

Happy children have sunny faces.

EXERCISE 64.

1. Mention the **adjectives** that are descriptive, and tell to what each one adds a quality.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The day was pleasant. | 9. Laughing is contagious. |
| 2. The busy bee improves the shining hour. | 10. The moon silvers the distant hills. |
| 3. The old songs are delightful. | 11. The full moon threw its silvery light upon the rippling waters of the lake. |
| 4. The Yosemite Valley is noted for its magnificent scenery. | 12. On a low bench under a spreading tree sat an old sailor. |
| 5. The domestic commerce of Boston is extensive. | 13. Beneath her torn hat glowed the wealth |
| 6. I am reading an interesting book. | Of simple beauty and rustic health. |
| 7. Richard looked sober at this. | |
| 8. Delays are dangerous. | |

2. Which of the subjects have qualities **asserted** of them?

66. Whichever way used, most adjectives *describe* what the noun or the pronoun represents. But there are **other words called adjectives**, which affect the meaning in a *different* way ; thus, if we say, —

The king lived a year and some months in this city,
we show that we mean only a *particular* king, only *one* year, about *how many* months, and *which* city. These words, **the, a, some, this,** are adjectives, because they *add* something to our meaning that was not expressed by the noun alone : but they do not tell what *kind* of king, year, month, or city, as if we were to say, —

A good king lived a **dreary** year and three **tiresome** months in a **hostile** city.

67. Words that refer to number are of this sort; as here, —

one day	sixteen months	first minute
two weeks	tenth hour	half second

These show to just how many or to which one the name applies; and there are only about forty others, including, —

a or an, the,	every, few,	same, several,
many, any, all,	first, last,	this or these,
each, either,	much, no,	that or those.

68. Such adjectives, without referring to any quality, always add something to our meaning by showing **which ones**, or **how many**, and so on. Without them the meaning of a noun might be very indefinite, and so we say that they **determine** or **limit** the application of it.

EXERCISE 65.

Select the adjectives that do not describe, but only show to which ones or to how many the noun applies. Tell what each one **limits**.

1. Eight men were on that committee.
2. February has twenty-nine days every fourth year.
3. Each exercise must be well written.
4. Much harm arises from imprudence.
5. No man knows all things.
6. Every flock contains some black sheep.
7. This park contains forty-four acres.
8. All the trees in yonder row have stood there many years.
9. Several English elms and some maples were blown down.
10. That pond down the slope is used for skating every year.
11. There are no shade trees on either side of that street.
12. Few persons take much interest in such matters.
13. Both rivers rise in the same plateau.
14. A careless or ignorant person might improperly say "*them* books" instead of "*those* books."
15. Always say "*this* kind," "*that* sort": it is an error to say "*these* kind," "*those* sort."

69. An *Adjective* is a word that may be added to a noun or a pronoun either to describe or to determine what it means.

The word "adjective" means something *that is added* to a noun or name.

70. Descriptive or qualifying adjectives *describe* what is mentioned.

Limiting adjectives show *which ones, how many*, and so on without describing.

71. 1. An adjective is commonly used **with nouns** or with pronouns so as to describe what they represent, or to limit their application, without asserting anything; but,—

2. An adjective may also be used **with verbs** to make a statement about the subject.

When any adjective referring to the subject is used with the verb as part of the predicate, it is called a *predicate adjective*.

EXERCISE 66.

1. Put all the adjectives into two lists,—one for those that describe, and one for those that do not.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. We have caught a few speckled trout in that brook. | 7. Every blossom on that apple-tree should have five petals. |
| 2. The new yacht <i>Louette</i> won the last race. | 8. The century-plant blossoms only once in its lifetime of seven to fifty years. |
| 3. Large quantities of cotton are exported from this country each year. | 9. Deciduous trees lose their foliage every autumn. |
| 4. Carnivorous animals eat animal food. | 10. Evergreen trees are covered with foliage all the year round. |
| 5. Herbivorous animals eat vegetable food. | 11. Galls are round bodies formed on some plants by the stings of insects. |
| 6. Omnivorous animals eat all kinds of food. | |

2. What does each adjective modify?

EXERCISE 67.

Use with each of these nouns two adjectives,—the first telling **which one**, or **how many**, and so on; and the other telling the kind, or adding a quality. Thus:—

"This fruitful field."

field	waves	clouds	steamer	church
soldiers	medicine	bees	stories	grain
storm	cattle	silk	books	river

EXERCISE 68.

Make sentences, using **two** of these adjectives in each one:—

each	shaggy	strange	such	every
pleasant	thoughtless	any	polite	favorable
all	some	attentive	noble	careful
coarse	selfish	respectful	humble	brave

72. Punctuation. Very often two or more adjectives are used with one noun, so that some punctuation is needed. Thus:—

He was a **large, muscular** man.

These few, scattered ruins remain.

The day was **dreary, cold, and wintry**.

RULE.—*Two or more qualifying adjectives must be separated by commas, unless there are words between that connect them all.*

Thus, we write a **large sleigh** without commas, using an adjective of each kind, or **the same sleigh**, using two limiting adjectives; but

the same old, broken, one-seated sleigh

needs commas between the qualifying adjectives. So in the expression,—

Dark, long, and weary hours.

But when the adjectives are all connected, we write, —

Bright and joyous hours.

The hills are **desolate and rugged and wild**.

EXERCISE 69.

Put commas where they should be in the following:—

1. All attentive studious faithful scholars —
2. Every well-bred intelligent man —
3. A wild barren uncultivated district —
4. Broad well-watered fruitful plains —
5. An honest kind and generous nature —

EXERCISE 70.

Which of these words are synonymous with **strong; brave; healthy; hateful; huge?**—

immense	abominable	repulsive	monstrous	detestable
vigorous	powerful	mighty	robust	enormous
gallant	hale	fearless	vast	hearty
able	dauntless	loathsome	potent	courageous

EXERCISE 71.

Use each of these words as an **adjective**, and as a **noun** or a **verb**:—

sound	right	second	spruce	warm
light	stone	mail	rage	stone

EXERCISE 72.

Change the descriptive adjectives to others of similar meaning:—

We saw many novel sights in this remote town. There was a remarkable clearness in the air, and there were lofty hills all about clothed with extensive forests. We were walking along a zigzag path towards a rather desolate spot where the yearly fair had once been held. The abandoned booths were vacant, but we met a numerous company of persons who had come a prolonged journey through these retired valleys on some charitable errand to the peasants. They had found the burning heat very disagreeable, and seemed to be tired and eager to rest.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. What is needed to make the shortest of sentences? 2. What is the use of adjectives? 3. Why are they so called? 4. What do they modify? 5. What are the two ways of using them? Give examples, using the word "great." 6. What is a predicate adjective? 7. What name do we give to those that are not descriptive? 8. What is the use of limiting adjectives? 9. Give an example of each kind. 10. Give a definition of adjectives. 11. When do adjectives need to be separated by commas?

V. ADVERBS.

EXERCISE 73.

1. Which words in these sentences show **when** the men are to work?

2. Which tell **how**, or in what manner, they ought to work?

3. Which show **where**?

4. Which show **how much**?

The men must work **quietly**. The men must work **well**.

The men must work **early**. The men must work **now**.

The men must work **here**. The men must work **outside**.

The men must work **less**. The men must work **more**.

5. Can you think of any other single words that would show *how*, or *when*, or *where* men must work?

73. If we should take away from the examples in Ex. 73 these words, **quietly**, **early**, **here**, **less**, **well**, **now**, **outside**, **more**, just the same thing would be asserted in every sentence. But each one of the words that are added to the verb makes a little change in what the verb alone would mean; for they show *how*, *when*, *where*, and so on.

EXERCISE 74.

Which words are added to the verbs to show **how**, **when**, **where**, and so on?

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| 1. Wait patiently. | 7. The plough soon scatters the snow. |
| 2. You must go now. | 8. It was scarcely needed. |
| 3. I shall visit Europe soon. | 9. The pendulum moves to and fro continually. |
| 4. Have you ever been there? | 10. The day has almost ended. |
| 5. The train runs regularly. | |
| 6. Snow sometimes delays it. | |

74. Words of this sort are called **Adverbs** because they are *added to verbs* to make our meaning more definite, very much as adjectives are added to nouns and pronouns.

EXERCISE 75.

Fill each blank with an adverb that will tell **when**, **where**, or **how**.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. The girls write —. | 6. Our hearts beat —. |
| 2. We shall sing —. | 7. The river flows —. |
| 3. Those yachts sail —. | 8. The fire burns —. |
| 4. They returned —. | 9. The messenger will return —. |
| 5. We might go —. | 10. Can you read music —? |

EXERCISE 76.

Mention every **verb**, and the **adverb** that modifies it, telling whether it shows how, when, or where. Thus:—

The verb "must go" is modified by the adverb "now," which shows *when* we must go.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------|
| 1. We must go now. | 5. He bears trouble patiently. |
| 2. Yonder comes my father. | 6. They sometimes sing finely. |
| 3. I never called there again. | 7. The best often fail. |
| 4. Water is found everywhere. | 8. Return quickly. |
| 9. The procession moved slowly onward. | |
| 10. Our friends will probably come back to-morrow. | |
| 11. The rain fell heavily last Tuesday. | |
| 12. Lightning flashed vividly in the clouds. | |
| 13. The thunder rumbled everywhere. | |
| 14. People were running hither and thither. | |
| 15. Umbrellas were quickly raised. | |
| 16. Carriages dashed hurriedly along. | |
| 17. People often hailed them. But they never stopped. | |

18. The streets were badly washed.
19. Many gardens were seriously injured.
20. Soon the clouds lifted again. The sun shone brightly.
21. We could scarcely see the rainbow yonder.
22. It suddenly disappeared.
23. Birds now came forth from the bushes. They sang joyously.

EXERCISE 77.

Copy some of the sentences in Ex. 76, marking subject and verb, and putting the adverbs in brackets. Thus:—

The procession moved [onward] [slowly].

75. Some of these words have another use.

Thus, instead of—

The hill is steep; This book is new, —

we should often wish to say *how steep*, *how nearly new*, and so on, as in—

The hill is **very** steep.

This book is **almost** new.

The hill is **less** steep.

This book is **quite** new.

The hill is steep **enough**.

This book is **entirely** new.

The hill is steep **here**.

This book is new **now**.

But what kind of a word is *steep*, and what have we done to express our meaning more fully?

There are modifiers for *adjectives*, then, just as much as for nouns and verbs.

EXERCISE 78.

First select the **nouns**, and say what adjectives qualify or limit them. Then tell which adjectives have a word added to show *how* or *how much*.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. This lesson is very short. | 5. Oxen are rather sluggish animals. |
| 2. You are extremely careless. | 6. Fred is remarkably cheerful this morning. |
| 3. Can you find a partly open rose? | 7. Is it too difficult for you? |
| 4. He read an exceedingly interesting story. | |

76. Such words we already know about: they are *adverbs*. The reason for using the same sort of words with both adjectives and verbs, is that both need to be modified in the same way; that is to say, by telling *how*, *how often*, *when*, *where*, *how much*, *how little*, and so on.

EXERCISE 79.

1. Select the **adjectives** in these sentences, and tell which of them are modified by **adverbs**:—

1. The night was very dark.
2. Everybody was sleeping soundly.
3. The dim light of the new moon was almost entirely concealed.
4. I was rather late about my errand.
5. The somewhat steep path over the hill was little trodden.
6. It was very much too rocky for so dark a night.
7. Even the sky was nearly black.
8. I was wisely cautious.
9. Except for such great care I should have fallen repeatedly.
10. I finally reached my destination in a completely exhausted condition.
11. We were seriously alarmed at your long absence.
12. Experiences of this kind are extremely unpleasant.
13. My efforts proved to be uncommonly successful.

2. Read the sentences, omitting the adverbs.

77. Sometimes, in order to show just what we mean, we need to modify an *adverb*. Thus:—

He has come **often**
may be changed to—

He has come **very often**, or **rather often**,
and—

He spoke **truly**
may become—

He spoke **quite truly**, or **more truly**, or **less truly**.

EXERCISE 80.

Which words in these sentences modify adverbs?—

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Speak very distinctly. | 5. Kind deeds are almost never forgotten. |
| 2. James, you read too rapidly. | 6. Have we gone far enough? |
| 3. How quietly that train runs. | 7. Our exercises must be more neatly written. |
| 4. Water is found almost everywhere. | |

78. In such sentences the words that *modify* adverbs are *themselves* adverbs, and could be used to modify adjectives or verbs.

Adverbs, then, can be used in *three* different ways.

79. An *Adverb* is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

EXERCISE 81.

1. Use these adverbs in sentences to modify *verbs*:—

cautiously	seldom	often	formerly
faithfully	always	again	lately
sometimes	forever	backward	never

2. Use these adverbs in sentences to modify *adjectives*:—

almost	too	totally	quite
nearly	so	entirely	how

3. Use adverbs—all different—to modify the following in sentences:—

feebly; rapidly; much; greatly; well.

EXERCISE 82.

1. Arrange these adverbs in five groups of four each, putting the *synonyms* together:—

eventually	lastly	swiftly	quietly	rapidly
quickly	warmly	finally	fervently	selfishly
fervidly	easily	gently	greedily	meanly
tranquilly	ardently	ultimately	sordidly	speedily

2. From what *adjectives* were these adverbs made?

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Which are the two most important kinds of words? 2. What kind of words may be used in the place of nouns? 3. What kind modify nouns? 4. What is an adverb? 5. What is the difference between an adverb and an adjective? 6. What do adverbs add to what a verb alone would mean? 7. How do they affect the meaning of adjectives? 8. Use one adverb to modify another.

VI. PREPOSITIONS.

EXERCISE 83.

1. What is an adjective?

2. In the expressions in the first column, what words describe houses? What kind of words are they?

- | | | | |
|----|-----------------------------|----|------------------------------------|
| 1. | <i>wooden</i> houses | or | houses <i>of wood</i> . |
| 2. | <i>empty</i> houses | or | houses <i>without occupants</i> . |
| 3. | <i>three-storied</i> houses | or | houses <i>with three stories</i> . |
| 4. | <i>valuable</i> houses | or | houses <i>of great value</i> . |
| 5. | <i>mountain</i> houses | or | houses <i>on the mountains</i> . |
| 6. | <i>public</i> houses | or | houses <i>for the public</i> . |
| 7. | <i>city</i> houses | or | houses <i>in the city</i> . |

3. What do the groups of words in the second column describe? What are they used like?

4. Use **adjectives** in place of the following italicized groups without much changing the meaning. Tell what each modifies.

1. Business *of importance* detained me.
2. Carpets *from Persia* are costly.
3. We found a wagon *with two seats*.
4. Men *of wealth* should be generous.

EXERCISE 84.

1. What is an adverb?

2. What words in the first column tell *how*, *when*, or *where* the ship sails? What kind of words are they?

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|----|--|
| 1. The ship sails <i>rapidly</i> | or | The ship sails <i>with rapidity</i> . |
| 2. The ship sails <i>safely</i> | or | The ship sails <i>without danger</i> . |
| 3. The ship sails <i>afar</i> | or | The ship sails <i>to a distance</i> . |
| 4. The ship sails <i>now</i> | or | The ship sails <i>at this time</i> . |
| 5. The ship sails <i>there</i> | or | The ship sails <i>for that place</i> . |
| 6. The ship sails <i>away</i> | or | The ship sails <i>from home</i> . |
| 7. The ship sails <i>soon</i> | or | The ship sails <i>in two hours</i> . |

3. What does each group in the second column tell about the sailing of the ship? What does each one mean? What are they used like?

4. Use **adverbs** in the place of the italicized groups without much changing the meaning. What does each modify?

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1. The Indians lived <i>in this place</i> . | 3. Be courteous <i>at all times</i> . |
| 2. Never write <i>without care</i> . | 4. Do they deal <i>upon honor</i> ? |

80. The single words that we have used to modify other words are adjectives or adverbs; but we see that little groups of words called **phrases** may be used to modify both nouns and verbs in about the same way.

Thus we may speak of —

a **thorny** bush or a bush **with thorns**;
an **English** home or a home **in England**.

It is easy to see that **with thorns** and **in England** are very much like adjectives in meaning, though they are put after the noun instead of before it. Again, in these sentences, —

The letter was **carefully** written. It was sent **promptly**.
The letter was written **with care**. It was sent **without delay**.

the phrases **with care** and **without delay** seem to modify the verbs just as the adverbs **carefully** and **promptly** do. So, too, —

The wind blew **very furiously** might be changed to —
The wind blew **with great fury**.

81. It very often happens that there is no adjective or adverb in our language that will serve as a modifier to

express our meaning, and then we are forced to use such phrases.

Here, for example, we could not possibly find a single word that would take the place of the phrases:—

The house **by the river** is a hotel. He came **from the city**.
 Those **on the shelf** are sold. The bucket hung **in the well**.
 The path **of industry** leads to success.
 My friend was **with his regiment**.

All such groups of words are called *phrases* because they are used like single words.

We have already learned that a verb-phrase is used like a single verb, and we shall find that there are still other kinds of phrases.

EXERCISE 85.

1. Which **phrases** in these sentences are used like *adjectives*?

2. Do those that are used like *adverbs* tell how, when, where, or how often?

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. He came in haste. | 6. He pays his rent by the month. |
| 2. We are in fear. | 7. He finished his task with ease. |
| 3. People of intelligence live in this place. | 8. He came to this place after the time. |
| 4. Diamonds of great value are found in that field. | 9. Children like stories about fairies. |
| 5. My friend never comes behind time. | 10. The plan was made in secret. |
| | 11. We shall deal upon honor. |

3. Change the **phrases** to adjectives or adverbs, if you can think of any that will serve.

EXERCISE 86.

1. Use a **phrase** instead of the adjective or adverb.

- | | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Turkish rugs | 5. strong men | 9. go now |
| 2. juvenile books | 6. a marine disaster | 10. send it soon |
| 3. Java coffee | 7. spoke distinctly | 11. study diligently |
| 4. silver plates | 8. went homeward | 12. walk quietly |

2. Use an **adjective** or an **adverb** in place of the phrase.

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. a road along the river | 9. lands beyond the seas |
| 2. a path up the mountain | 10. jewelry from France |
| 3. a man of strength | 11. treat all with respect |
| 4. a journey toward home | 12. came to this place |
| 5. a child at play | 13. polite at all times |
| 6. a trip through Europe | 14. speak in public |
| 7. women of fashion | 15. behave with propriety |
| 8. women of sense | 16. a bird on the wing |

82. All these phrases contain a noun or a pronoun with a word like *of, with, from, in, at, or by*, that connects it with what is modified. These words usually come first in the phrase, and they are called **Prepositions**.

Let us see what they do for our language that other words will not do.

83. If we wished to show that a clump of trees was the place where some boys were hiding, we might say, —

The boys hid **in** the trees.

The boys hid **under** the trees.

The boys hid **among** the trees.

The boys hid **behind** the trees.

The boys hid **beyond** the trees.

The only difference is in the prepositions **in, under, among**, etc. Read the sentences *without* them, and you will see that nobody could tell what the *trees* had to do with the *hiding*; but *with* the prepositions we see that the word "trees" can be used to modify "hid" in various ways; for it is one thing to hide *under* the trees, another to hide *in* the trees, and so on.

EXERCISE 87.

Select the **phrases** and tell what each one modifies. Thus: —

"From Plymouth" is a phrase used like an adverb to modify the verb "sailed."

1. The Mayflower sailed from Plymouth.
2. Magellan's ship sailed around the globe.

3. Beautiful pearls are found in the sea.
4. The early settlers hunted for gold.
5. The star rested over Bethlehem.
6. The English settled along the coast.
7. We shall return through the valley.
8. My friends will come in the next train.
9. Garfield lived in Ohio during his boyhood.
10. No one should be condemned without a trial.

84. Using a phrase as an *adjective*, we might say, —

The land **around** the grove. The shade **of** the grove.
 The walk **from** the grove. The road **to** the grove.
 The path **through** the grove.

Here we modify or explain the meaning of the nouns *walk*, *land*, *shade*, etc., by referring to the *grove*; but in order to do this we have to use a different preposition in each expression.

Read the examples both with and without the prepositions, and notice how necessary they are to connect the other words and show what they have to do with each other.

85. To show how one word can modify another, or what the meanings of two words have to do with each other, is to show the *relation* between them.

EXERCISE 88.

Select the **phrases** and tell what each one modifies. Thus: —

"Of Rome" is a phrase used as an adjective to modify the noun "city."

1. The city of Rome is the capital of Italy.
2. The road up the mountain is very rocky.
3. Goods for that firm were shipped yesterday.
4. The planet with the rings is Saturn.
5. Admission to college depends on attainments.
6. The town beyond Lexington is Concord.
7. Success without effort is impossible.
8. The fort near the city was captured first.
9. Icebergs from the Arctic Ocean melt in the Gulf Stream.
10. Journeys into the interior are rarely made.

86. A *Preposition* is a relation-word used with a noun or a pronoun to make a phrase having the use of an adjective or an adverb.

The word "preposition" means *what is placed before*.

87. The noun or pronoun used with a preposition to make a phrase is called the **Object of the preposition.**

88. A *Prepositional Phrase* is one that contains a preposition and its object.

EXERCISE 89.

1. Select the *prepositions* in Exs. 87 and 88, and tell between what words each shows the relation. Thus:—

"From" is a preposition, and shows the relation between its object "Plymouth" and the verb "sailed," which the phrase modifies.

2. Mention the *prepositions* with the object of each, and tell whether the phrase is used as an adjective or an adverb.

1. Birds in great numbers fly over this grove. 2. Some with blue plumage have dropped a handful of feathers for me. 3. Quails from the north meet jays from the south. 4. There are eggs in the nest near the vine. 5. The mother bird is mottled at the throat and along the breast. 6. A bluebird nests under the eaves.

89. Since prepositional phrases can be used wherever an adverb can be, we find them modifying not only nouns, pronouns, and verbs, but *adjectives* and *adverbs* also. Thus:—

He was happy to excess, or He was excessively happy.
They are ripe before the time, or They are prematurely ripe.

In other cases it is harder to find what will take the place of the phrase. As:—

This breeze is fresh from the ocean.

We are weary with working.

Here the four phrases modify adjectives as adverbs would.

EXERCISE 90.

Point out the **prepositional phrases**, and tell whether they modify **adjectives** or **adverbs**.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Those trees are heavy with fruit. | 5. She is insane from anxiety. |
| 2. You are too cautious for me. | 6. Shall you be absent from home? |
| 3. The children were happy beyond measure. | 7. We found rosebuds pink at the tips. |
| 4. Always be polite to strangers. | 8. The grass was wet with dew. |

EXERCISE 91.

1. Point out the **subject** and the **verb** in each sentence.
2. Select the **adjectives** and tell what each modifies.
3. What does each **adverb** modify?
4. Read the **prepositional phrases**, tell how each one is used, and what it modifies.

1. The first voyage around the world was made by a Portuguese ship.
2. The rays of the sun fall most obliquely in the winter.
3. A great swarm of locusts came up suddenly from the meadow.
4. Volcanoes are always situated near the sea-coast.
5. All the planets move around the sun from west to east.

5. Mention the **prepositions**, and tell the words between which each shows the relation.

EXERCISE 92.

1. Use these phrases in sentences:—

with him	against it	to you
by her	between us	for whom
after me	behind them	from him

2. Here are the most common prepositions. Use each one in a sentence.

about	around	beyond	of	under
above	at	by	on	unto
across	before	down	over	up
after	behind	for	through	upon
against	below	from	till	with
along	beneath	in	to	within
among	between	into	toward	without

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. What is an adjective? 2. An adverb? 3. What may be used instead of adjectives and adverbs? 4. What is a preposition? 5. A prepositional phrase? 6. The object of a preposition? 7. What is it to show the *relation* between words? 8. Use a preposition to connect a verb and a pronoun; a noun and another noun; an adjective and a noun.

VII. CONJUNCTIONS.

90. We have learned that a preposition connects two other words by showing what one of them has to do with the other.

We now come to words that connect in a different way.

In the sentence,—

The sun sets and the moon appears,

how many verbs are there? What is the subject of each? Read the sentence, omitting the word **and**.

Here, then, are two sentences joined or tied together as one sentence. They might have been printed thus:—

The sun sets. The moon appears.

So we might unite three or more sentences in one; as,—

The sun sets, (and) the moon appears, and the stars come out;

or we might connect two sentences in different ways; as,—

The sun has set, **and** the stars appear.

The sun has set, **for** the stars appear.

The sun has set, **but** the stars appear.

The sun has set, **therefore** the stars appear.

And seems to join the sentences together, as if they were about one subject; **for** shows that one statement gives a reason for making the other; and so on with other words of this sort, such as *but, therefore, or, nor, hence, however*.

91. There are not very many of these words, and as they all connect or *join together* what we say, they are called **Conjunctions**.

They all denote different relations between the expressions they connect, by showing what the connected parts have to do with each other. But, unlike prepositions, they always connect expressions of the same sort.

EXERCISE 93.

What **sentences** have been united to make the following?

1. The birds have come and the flowers appear.
2. The ocean is rough for the breakers roar.
3. My pears are ripe and I am glad.
4. Some are very large but they are not yellow.
5. Imports are brought into the country but exports are sent out of it.
6. You cannot have tried earnestly or you would have succeeded.
7. You must save your money or sometime you will need it.
8. The sky seems clear yet no stars are visible.
9. This boat must carry us over else we cannot go.
10. We cannot get money nor have we any food.
11. The king must win or he must forfeit his crown forever.

92. Such sentences as the preceding differ from those we have been studying; for they are made up of *two or more simple sentences combined*. Instead of one predicate and the subject of it, they have two or more predicates each with a subject of its own; and so the whole can be divided into shorter sentences.

EXERCISE 94.

Copy the sentences in the preceding exercise. Place vertical lines before and after each conjunction, and mark each subject and each verb. Enclose adjectives and phrases that modify the subject, in

curves; enclose adverbs and phrases that modify the verb, in brackets. Insert the comma where it belongs. Thus:—

(Kind) friends have left us, | but | they will return [soon].

93. Sentences made in this way, by uniting two or more simple sentences, are called **compound**.

94. A *Simple Sentence* is a sentence that contains only one subject and one predicate.

95. A *Compound Sentence* is one formed by uniting independent sentences.

The sentences united to form a compound sentence are called its *members*.

96. Punctuation. RULE.—*When the members of a compound sentence are connected by a conjunction, they must generally be separated by a comma to show that the conjunction does not join two words.* Thus:—

There were wheels to the cart, and the axles were strong.

EXERCISE 95.

Make **compound** sentences by uniting simple ones that have the following words as subjects. **Punctuate** carefully.

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. New York — San Francisco. | 4. lead — cork. |
| 2. horses — camels. | 5. skating — tennis. |
| 3. water — alcohol. | 6. silk — linen. |

97. Conjunctions are used to connect not only sentences, but also words or expressions in the same sentence when they are of the same kind and used in the same way.

1. Two or more *nouns* or *pronouns* may be connected in one sentence; as in, —

Music and painting are fine arts.
 We import *cotton, coffee, and diamonds* from Brazil.
You and I will visit the museum.
 Did you ask *him or her or me*?

2. Several *verbs* may be joined together in one sentence; as in, —

All the children *sing and dance*.
 Farmers *raise and sell* vegetables for the market.

3. So, too, we may wish to unite two or more *adjectives* or *adverbs* or *phrases* that modify the same word; as in, —

The *dead or dying* soldiers were left behind.
 She walks *gracefully and firmly, but very slowly*.
 The volume is *in the book-case or on the table*.

EXERCISE 96.

Select the **conjunctions**, telling which words they connect and what kind of words are connected. Thus: —

“And” is a conjunction, and connects the two nouns “time” and “tide.”

1. Time and tide wait for no man.
2. Extreme poverty or great wealth may bring fame.
3. There health and plenty cheered the laboring swain.
4. Horatius and his two companions kept the bridge.
5. Some trees or shrubs would improve the place.
6. An honest face and a clear conscience go together.
7. The days come and go in a ceaseless round.
8. The old ship strains and tosses in the storm.
9. Some people always promise, but never pay.
10. Who among you thinks or dreams of me?
11. All men live and die unknown by most of their fellows.
12. She plucked the daisies white and violets blue.
13. Michael Angelo was a painter and sculptor.
14. Bring some roses or a pot of tulips.
15. Every leaf and every flower looks fresh and bright.
16. The heat drives us to the hills or to the sea.
17. The story was long but interesting.
18. Now and then the whip-poor-will calls from the hill or the grove.

19. The river may be forded above or below the bridge.
20. You and I are old and well-tried friends.
21. Shall we spend our time over worthless books and papers, or with the best authors?

98. A *Conjunction* is a word that connects sentences or parts of sentences.

The word "conjunction" means *that which joins together*.

99. *Punctuation*. RULE. — *Two or more words or phrases of the same kind used in the same way should be separated by commas, unless conjunctions are used to connect them all.*

Thus:—

Clergymen, lawyers, and doctors preach, argue, or heal.

But in the sentence —

We met them in Pittsburg and in Detroit and in Chicago, each phrase is connected to the following one by a conjunction, and no commas are needed. [See § 72.]

EXERCISE 97.

1. Write **simple** sentences containing the following groups of words:—

he	fly	red	patient	safely
you	walk	white	firm	quickly
I	swim	blue	kind	pleasantly

2. Write a **complete** sentence in answer to each question. **Punctuate** carefully.

1. Who were the first three presidents of the United States?
2. What kinds of grain grow in the Mississippi Valley?
3. What are three of the duties of a sailor?
4. What must be done to corn in the field before it becomes meal?
5. Of what materials is cloth made?
6. What qualities must a thing have that it may affect the sense of taste?

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. What are simple sentences?
 2. How may they be united?
 3. Into what kind of sentences?
 4. What besides sentences do conjunctions connect?
 5. What is meant by the *members* of a compound sentence?
 6. Define a *compound sentence*.
 7. Give a rule for using the comma in a compound sentence.
 8. Write a simple sentence that requires two commas.
 9. Name five common conjunctions.
-

VIII. INTERJECTIONS.

100. The seven kinds of words that we have now learned to distinguish make up all our sentences: for every word that is really part of a sentence is either a noun, a pronoun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, a preposition, or a conjunction.

There are other words, however, that we use *with* sentences, but not exactly as *parts* of them. They are a different kind of language.

Thus, if any one says—

Oh! you hurt me,

the word **oh** is apt to be very much like a groan. So in—

Aha! I have found you!

aha takes the place of a shout; and in the following sentences,—

Pshaw! what a silly reason!

Poh! that's nothing.

He came, **alas!** too late.

the words **pshaw**, **poh**, and **alas** are about as expressive as a hiss, a puff, and a sigh.

101. When we use these words we do not assert anything, and very much of our meaning comes from the tone

in which we speak: but everybody understands at once that we are pained or pleased, and so on, just as we tell by a dog's whining whether he is grieved or delighted.

We must notice, however, that instead of making natural sounds to show our feelings, as animals do, we use words that are somewhat like such sounds, and which mean the same thing.

EXERCISE 98.

Which words would express *feeling*, even if used by themselves?

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Oh! I have ruined my friend! | 4. Ho ho! Ahoy! A sail! A sail! |
| 2. O that I were rich again! | 5. Hurrah! We've won a victory. |
| 3. Ha! Can you not hear it? | 6. Hist! The squirrel sees you. |

102. Such words are called **Interjections** because they are thrown into the midst of what we say without having much to do with other words.

103. A different sort of interjection is used in expressions like this: —

Bang! There goes another gun!

where the word **bang** is used merely to imitate a noise.

When we wish to represent these words by writing, we spell out the sounds as nearly as we can, just as we write *bow-wow* to represent the bark of a dog.

104. An *Interjection* is an exclamatory word or phrase used to express a feeling or a wish or to imitate some sound.

The word "interjection" means something *that is thrown into the midst of what we say*.

105. Punctuation. **RULE.** — *An interjection should be followed by an exclamation-point when it expresses very strong emotion, or when there would be a distinct pause in speaking.*

EXERCISE 99.

1. Which of the following interjections can be used to express *joy*? Which to express *disgust*? Which imitate some natural sound?

alas	hurrah	bravo	fie	O dear
pshaw	ahoy	whoa	hollo	ha ha ha

2. Use each of them in a sentence. If written, punctuate carefully.

SUMMARY: THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

106. All the words in our language can be divided into these **eight classes**:—

- | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|--|---|--|
| 1. Nouns | } | used to <i>name</i>
persons or things | } | are always required
to make a sentence. |
| and
2. Pronouns | | | | |
| 3. Verbs — used to <i>assert</i> | | | | |
| 4. Adjectives | } | used only to <i>modify</i>
other words | } | may help
to form
sentences. |
| and
5. Adverbs | | | | |
| 6. Prepositions | } | used to show the <i>connec-
tion</i> between other words | } | |
| and
7. Conjunctions | | | | |
| 8. Interjections | } | used to express
<i>feeling</i> | } | often stand
by themselves. |
| | | | | |

Speaking of them by kinds or by classes in this way, we call them the **eight Parts of Speech**.

About **Interjections**, however, we must remember that though they help to form our language, they are very different from all the other kinds of words; are not parts of sentences; and are often used by themselves.

REVIEW EXERCISE. 100.

1. Read every sentence given below and tell of what kind it is.
2. Which are made of two or three sentences put together? Which words would you omit to make them seem quite separate? What punctuation would you then put between them?
3. Try to explain the use of each punctuation mark on this page.
4. Read the subject of every sentence, and make a new predicate if you can.
5. Mention eight words belonging each to a different part of speech.
6. To what part of speech does "still" belong in Nos. 5-9?
7. Name the part of speech to which each word belongs.
8. Collect in a list all words that are of the same kind.
9. Find eleven phrases that do the work of adjectives or of adverbs.
10. Try to change the order of words in Nos. 4 and 9.
 1. How the wind whirls the leaves along the road.
 2. Hark! what hollow bellowings this dark abyss breathes forth.
 3. No sun, no moon, nor any stars pierce such a depth of gloom.
 4. Down came snow-flakes feathery, then roared the wintry wind, and over the ground like waves and hills lay snowy ridge and mound.
 5. The captains come and still that noisy crowd.
 6. See the steam from the still, for it rises straight in the air to-day.
 7. Are they so still in yonder room, or are they only fast asleep?
 8. You look still better in your bonny gown.
 9. O, still they come, and still we go; but the far, bright stars change never.
10. I said to them here by the brook last May:
"Speak, my marigolds; tell me true, —
Who put the gold in the sand for you?
How did you draw it through such long stems?"
Golden petals with dew for gems
Fell and slowly sailed away;
Zephyr wrecked them. — Again they're here.
Where think you they spent the year?

CHAPTER V.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

A. INCOMPLETE VERBS AND THEIR COMPLEMENTS

EXERCISE 101.

1. (a) What must the subject of a sentence contain? (b) What must the predicate contain? (c) Define a verb. (d) A verb-phrase. (e) How may verbs be modified?

2. In six of these sentences the meaning is complete. Which are they? Read the remaining six, supplying with each verb what is needed to complete the meaning.

- | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| 1. The wind changed | 5. We must hurry | 9. We were |
| 2. The air is | 6. The ice was | 10. The night has been |
| 3. My friend called | 7. The snow melted | 11. The gale increased |
| 4. The skating will be | 8. Our fun stopped | 12. Such storms are |

3. Which of the verbs would you call *incomplete*? Give your reason.

107. An Incomplete Verb is one that requires the addition of another word, called the *complement*, to give the sentence meaning.

EXERCISE 102.

Point out the **verb**, and show what completes the meaning.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Game was scarce. | 5. Our hotel was distant. |
| 2. Our powder was wet. | 6. Our lunch-boxes were empty. |
| 3. We were hungry. | 7. Matters might have been worse. |
| 4. The pond was frozen. | 8. We were not disheartened. |

1. COPULATIVE VERBS.

108. In each of these sentences, —

I am cold.

You are generous.

He was asleep.

He slept.

They were ill.

They suffered.

She is happy.

He smiles.

what is the complete predicate? In those of three words, does the verb or the adjective tell us more about the subject? In those of two words, what describes the subject?

Each of the verbs **slept**, **suffered**, **smiles**, is enough to give us some information; but the verbs —

am, was, were, is, are,

only begin to tell us something that is expressed mostly by the adjectives. Of course there is no assertion without the verb; but in **He was asleep**, the adjective, being the word that describes the subject, is so important, that the verb seems *incomplete* without it. The two words together — **was asleep** — are very much like the single verb in **He slept**, for that means about the same thing.

EXERCISE 103.

1. (a) Select the verbs, and tell which of them are modified by adverbs or prepositional phrases. (b) Which are *incomplete*, and what **complements** are added to them to describe the subject?

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Some grapes are sweet. | 9. Delays are often dangerous. |
| 2. They grow in the south. | 10. The crocus blooms in the spring. |
| 3. The wind will be cold. | 11. The early laws were severe. |
| 4. Celluloid is inflammable. | 12. My requests for dismissal have been useless. |
| 5. Winter begins in December. | 13. The whole country is fertile. |
| 6. His remarks were instructive. | 14. The polar regions are uninhabitable. |
| 7. Not all birds are migratory. | |
| 8. The wind sighs plaintively around her grave. | |

2. Copy the preceding sentences, placing under the subject a *wavy* line, under the verb a *straight* line, and under the complement a straight line *over* a wavy line. Thus:—

Some grapes are sweet.

109. In the sentences, —

The story **seems** doubtful. The clouds **look** stormy.

The owl **appears** wise.

we see incomplete verbs that by themselves have a little more meaning than the ones we have been studying, such as —

am, is, are, was, were, will be, have been, etc.

But each of these verbs serves principally to connect or *couple* the subject with what describes or qualifies it, and so they are all called **Copulative** verbs.

There are not many of them, but they are very frequently used.

110. In the sentences, —

Those men **were** soldiers. Boys **may be** heroes.

Harrisburg **is** the capital. Our guide **will be** an Indian.

what kind of word is added to the verb to describe the subject?
What two words in each sentence name the same person or thing?

We see that a *noun*, as well as an adjective, may be used with the verb as a sort of second name, to describe the subject, or explain what is meant.

111. A noun used as complement with a copulative verb is called a *predicate noun*.

EXERCISE 104.

1. Point out the **copulative verb** with its subject and complement, telling whether the latter is a noun or an adjective. Thus:—

In the second sentence "was" is the copulative verb, having the noun "trouble" for its subject, and the noun "poverty" for its complement.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The man was poor. | 12. The cat's claws were sharp. |
| 2. His trouble was poverty. | 13. Turtles are amphibious. |
| 3. The water of the ocean is salt. | 14. The ship of the desert is the camel. |
| 4. Yonder vessel must be a schooner. | 15. Tigers are carnivorous. |
| 5. Farmers are independent. | 16. Tigers are flesh-eaters. |
| 6. Every barrel seems full. | 17. Henrietta shall be queen. |
| 7. Diamonds are costly. | 18. The boy is the shoemaker's best friend. |
| 8. Pure air is exhilarating. | 19. Idle boys become poor men. |
| 9. Quartz is a mineral. | 20. The sound of the evening bells was sweet. |
| 10. Our friends look anxious. | 21. The night grows dark. |
| 11. The lecture to-morrow will be short. | |

2. Copy those of the preceding sentences that have *nouns* as complements. Underline subject and verb as heretofore, and under the noun complement place a wavy line *over* a straight line. Thus:—

Yonder vessel is a schooner.

112. A *Copulative* verb is one that has a complement describing the subject.

The word "copulative" means *coupling* or connecting.

EXERCISE 105.

Write sentences having the following words as **complements** of copulative verbs. Use the marking as in preceding exercises.

mineral	old-fashioned	fatigued	Frenchman
combustible	mechanic	librarian	skilful
liquid	ingenious	Japanese	patriot

2. TRANSITIVE VERBS.

EXERCISE 106.

1. Try to **complete** the sentences that seem unfinished, and explain why they seem so.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. It is raining | 7. The nests are in the hay |
| 2. Who opened | 8. Yesterday I had a fall |
| 3. We can look for eggs | 9. Somebody fired |
| 4. Come to the barn | 10. I was frightened |
| 5. I will bring | 11. Of course I broke |
| 6. We shall easily find | 12. The fall almost killed |
2. Do any of them lack the verb? What kind of word is needed?

EXERCISE 107.

1. Give the complete predicate of each of these sentences:—

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. The bright sun rises. | 7. The trees shed their leaves. |
| 2. The March winds blow. | 8. Farmers sell butter. |
| 3. A robin sings on the bough. | 9. Hail destroys the crops. |
| 4. The lilacs blossom. | 10. The archer bends the bow. |
| 5. The weather was mild. | 11. The ground looks white. |
| 6. The skies are clear. | 12. Our summer is over. |

2. (a) Which of these verbs assert that the subject *does* something, or performs some *action*? (b) Which represent the subject as doing something *to* a person or to anything else? (c) What *action* is asserted of the winds? (d) Of a robin? (e) What word in the ninth sentence tells what the hail *does*? (f) What does the hail act *upon*? (h) Who performs the action of bending? (i) What object *receives* the action? (j) What is the object of "shed"? (k) Of "sell"?

EXERCISE 108.

Give the **object** of these verbs; that is, tell what receives the action:—

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. I have sold my yacht. | 5. They founded a new nation. |
| 2. He has bought a farm. | 6. The engine has broken a rail. |
| 3. Who wrote the prescription? | 7. Who will take the tickets? |
| 4. The Pilgrims left their native land. | 8. We cannot speak French. |
| | 9. Ask the meaning of the word. |

113. In nearly all the sentences in Ex. 107, the verb

alone gives considerable information about the subject; but yet it would seem very incomplete to say, —

The trees **shed**. Farmers **sell**. Hail **destroys**.

for any one would wait to hear *what* the trees shed, *what* the farmers sell, and so on.

We see, then, that there are still *other* verbs, such as **shed**, **sell**, **destroys**, **bends**, that we must call *incomplete*, since they have so much need of an object to fill out the meaning.

114. *These* verbs assert that the subject performs some action that passes over to and affects something else. The complement shows who or what it is that receives this action. So they are called **Transitive** — which means “passing over.”

115. We cannot tell whether a verb is transitive or not except by its *use*, for sometimes the verb without an object expresses as much as we wish to say, or else it has a different meaning.

EXERCISE 109.

Tell whether the verb is transitive or intransitive; *i.e.*, whether it has an **object** or not.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. That blind man never saw. | 7. Our national flag flies from the mast-head. |
| 2. I saw my friend on his return. | 8. The schooner in the offing flies a signal of distress. |
| 3. The bells ring merrily over the snow. | 9. The farmer ploughs his fields. |
| 4. The sexton rings the bell. | 10. The ships plough through the waves. |
| 5. The trees sway in the wind. | |
| 6. How the wind sways the trees! | |

116. A *Transitive* verb is one that has a complement showing who or what receives the action.

117. The complement of a transitive verb is called its **Object**.

118. Copulative and transitive verbs are the only ones that always need complements. Most others are complete in themselves.

If we say, —

The sun **rises**. The lilacs **blossom**.

the idea is complete without adding anything; for nobody could ask *what* the sun rises, or *what* the lilacs blossom. The rising or the blossoming does not necessarily affect anything else.

EXERCISE 110.

1. (a) In the following sentences, which verbs assert an action that is **complete** in itself? **(b)** Which assert actions performed on or **received by** some person or thing? Give their complements.

- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| 1. The morning dawned. | 5. Perseverance brings success. |
| 2. The bridge fell at noon. | 6. Sugar grows in Louisiana. |
| 3. The choppers fell the trees. | 7. Old Ironsides at anchor lay. |
| 4. The hunter lost the trail. | 8. Many fruits ripen in September. |
| 9. Our expected friends have arrived. | |
| 10. The angry man should control his passion. | |
| 11. We should hide the faults of others. | |
| 12. The grass withers, and the flowers fade. | |
| 13. Time and tide wait for no man. | |
| 14. The first gun at Sumter aroused the nation. | |
| 15. The melancholy days have come. | |
| 16. The city of Florence contains many palaces. | |
| 17. The farmers sow their seed in the spring. | |
| 18. If you plant in youth, you will reap in age. | |
| 19. He will spend the winter in Spain. | |
| 20. The fire in the woods burned for several days. | |
| 21. A fearful gale blew the ship out of its course. | |

2. Copy some of the preceding sentences, marking the subject and the verb as before. Under the *object* draw two straight lines; thus, —

The choppers fell the trees.

119. A *Complete* verb is one that requires no complement.

EXERCISE III.

1. Use the following in sentences, first as **complete** verbs, and then as **transitive** verbs, as in Ex. 109:—

write	set	reap	cheat	give
rides	succeed	learns	lose	sail

2. Select the verbs in Exs. 62 and 66, and tell whether they are *complete*, *copulative*, or *transitive*, and why.

EXERCISE II2.

1. Construct sentences, using the following as subjects of **complete** verbs:—

lightning	war	time	spiders
moon	smoke	clocks	petroleum

2. Use the following as subjects of **transitive** verbs:—

reporters	avalanche	artists	locomotives
electricity	physicians	bankers	earthquakes

3. Use the same words as **objects** of transitive verbs.

4. Write five sentences containing **copulative** verbs with adjectives as complements.

5. Write five with *noun* complements.

3. COMPLEMENTS.

120. We have learned that there are two kinds of complements:—

I. The complement of a *copulative* verb refers to the subject, and is called a **Subjective Complement**.

Any word or phrase that can modify a noun or a pronoun may be a **subjective complement**; as,—

Some plants are poisonous .	(adjective)
Your friends are musicians .	(noun)
It cannot have been he .	(pronoun)
Time is of great value .	(phrase)

121. II. The complement of a *transitive* verb is the **Object** of it, and has nothing to do with the subject of the sentence, but only with the verb.

(a) Any noun or pronoun may be used with a transitive verb as the object of it.

(b) As adverbs and other expressions modify the verb by answering the questions *how, when, where, etc.*, so the object answers the question *what*. Objects are the most important and necessary kind of modifiers, and this explains why they are called *complements* of the verb.

122. A **Complement** is what must be added to an incomplete verb to give meaning to the sentence.

EXERCISE 113.

Select the **complements** of the verbs, and tell whether they are *objects* or *subjective complements*; that is, whether they describe the subject or only modify the verb.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Rivers to the ocean run. | 5. I can find no fault with him. |
| 2. The reason is very plain. | 6. A long rain will be welcome. |
| 3. The stars look very small. | 7. No one is ever too old to learn. |
| 4. Our souls are immortal. | 8. Every day brings its own duties. |
9. Good habits are most easily formed in youth.
 10. We are the heirs of past generations.
 11. A man's actions show his character.
 12. The greatest English poet is Shakespeare.
 13. A rolling stone gathers no moss.
 14. The betrayer of his country is a traitor.
 15. Every man must educate himself.
 16. Agriculture is the parent of all industries.
 17. Mountain chains rob the winds of their moisture.
 18. Wisdom's ways are ways of pleasantness.
 19. The violets open their soft blue eyes.
 20. Of all our senses sight is the most important.
 21. In France and Germany sugar is made from beets.
 22. Despatch is the soul of business.

B. THE BASE OF A SENTENCE.

123. The materials that we must have for making the shortest of sentences are — a **subject** with a noun or a pronoun in it; and a **predicate** with a verb in it.

(a) *Two words* are required; something talked about, and something said; as, —

Night comes. Hope departs. Life ends.
Look you! Who calls?

(b) But when the verb is *incomplete*, that is, when the sentence would be almost meaningless without some other word in the predicate, then *three* words at least are required; as, —

We are children. Youth is hopeful. Love makes friends.

(c) When instead of a verb we have a *verb-phrase*, the number of essential words may be still larger; as, —

Drinking may have caused death.

124. In every simple sentence there are these two or three foundation elements, upon which all the rest is built up, and which we call the **Base**.

125. The **Base of a Sentence**, or what it needs more than anything else to give it meaning, consists either of *two* parts or elements: —

Subject, Complete Verb;

or of *three* parts: —

Subject, Copulative Verb, { **Subjective**
Complement; or,

Subject, Transitive Verb, Object.

EXERCISE 114.

1. Read the base of each sentence, or mark it by underlining its elements in this way:—

Under the **subject** draw a wavy line ~~~~~

Under the **verb** draw a straight line _____

Under the **object** draw two straight lines =====

Under the **subjective complement** draw a straight line with a wavy line —

Under it for **adjectives** ~~~~~;

Over it for **nouns or pronouns** ~~~~~. Thus:—

The sun always shines somewhere.

Your favor will be very acceptable.

1900 will not be a leap-year.

The sentinel stars set their watch in the sky.

1. Our good deeds live after us.
2. Seconds are the gold-dust of time.
3. The orbit of the earth is elliptical.
4. An artist's studio should be his workroom.
5. He mixes his paints on a palette.
6. Vaccination may prevent the small-pox.
7. Most male citizens over twenty-one can vote.
8. At sea the distant clouds seem low.
9. The old mayor climbed the belfry tower.
10. Joan of Arc perished at the stake.
11. Regret for a misspent past will be useless.
12. My workmen were once my employers.
13. A collection of curiosities may become a museum.
14. The miser willed his property to a college.
15. Stone walls do not a prison make.
16. Young hearts never grow old.
17. Foolish people often feel wise.
18. The Muses were the goddesses of art.

2. Treat other exercises in the same way, until the base of a sentence can be recognized and described very readily.

C. MODIFIERS.

EXERCISE 115.

1. What is a sentence? An assertion? What are the essential parts of one?

2. How many and what kinds of words *must* be used to make an assertion?

3. Illustrate from these sentences the meaning of "subject," "verb," "complement," "base," "modifier," and "adjective."

Cowardly men are generally poor soldiers.

These fine steamers now make regular trips.

4. What kind of steamers is meant? Which ones?

5. What words modify the verbs? What word describes the trips?

6. How would you say the subject and the object are modified?

126. Sometimes our sentences consist of only the two or three words that we have called the *base*: but generally we find it necessary *to modify* some part of the base in order to express our meaning exactly.

Thus, instead of "Sheep furnish wool," or "They came," we might wish to say, "*My son's* sheep, *a foreign breed*, furnish wool *of fine quality*," or "They *unexpectedly* came *yesterday* | *from town* | *to welcome us*."

127. Any word or group of words that qualifies another word, or explains its application, is called a **Modifier**.

By adding modifiers to the base, we build up fuller sentences, and it is about the **construction** or **building up of sentences** that we are to study now.

1. ADJECTIVES AS MODIFIERS.

128. We know that the subject, the object, and sometimes the subjective complement, is a *noun* or a *pronoun*, and that adjectives may modify nouns wherever they occur; hence we conclude that—

Adjectives may be added to either the *subject* or the *complement* as modifiers. Thus:—

Australian sheep furnish **fine** wool.

These | **black** sheep furnish **some** | **valuable** wool.

Glass is a **brittle**, **transparent** substance.

EXERCISE 116.

1. (a) **Classify** each sentence; that is, tell its kind. (b) Read the **base**. (c) Point out the **subject** and its **modifiers**. (d) Point out the **verb**. (e) Point out the **complement**, tell its **kind**, and give its **modifiers**. Thus:—

The first is a simple, assertive sentence. Its base is *dogs respect masters*. The subject *dogs* is modified by the adjective *savage*. The verb is *respect*. The object *masters* is modified by the adjective *stern*.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Savage dogs respect stern masters. | 8. An uncontrolled appetite is a relentless master. |
| 2. Coming events cast long shadows. | 9. The Polish salt mines seem inexhaustible. |
| 3. Has any man a heavy coat? | 10. The longest day has an end. |
| 4. Take the broad, open path. | 11. Your barking dogs are cowardly. |
| 5. Such long journeys are tiresome. | 12. Destructive freshets have injured the late crops. |
| 6. A low barometer indicates stormy weather. | 13. Is that snow-capped mountain an extinct volcano? |
| 7. Hidden fire makes black smoke. | 14. Tell no long stories. |

2. Copy the preceding sentences, and mark the base as before. Enclose each subject-modifier in curves (), and each complement-modifier in angles < >.¹ Thus:—

(These) sheep have <long> horns.

¹ *To the Teacher.*—This simple method of marking the analysis of sentences will be found very useful in ordinary written work, as well as in illustrative blackboard exercises.

Every subject is to be marked with a *wavy* line, every verb with a *straight* line. The complement is always marked with *two* lines,—both also *straight* for the object, since that modifies only the verb; but *one* of them *wavy* for the subjective complement,

3. Write sentences to show the use of adjectives *as part of the base*.

4. Write six that illustrate their use *as modifiers* of different parts of the base.

2. ADVERBS AS MODIFIERS.

129. Besides a noun or a pronoun, the base of a sentence always, as we know, contains a *verb*, and it sometimes contains an *adjective* as the complement of the verb. We know, too, that if a verb or an adjective needs a modifier to finish the meaning, an **Adverb** may be used. *E.g.*:—

The man approached **cautiously**.

Children **sometimes** make mistakes.

where the *verbs* are modified; and —

Some pine trees are **perfectly** straight.

The old elm was **almost** dead.

where the *adjective complements* are modified.

EXERCISE 117.

1. Point out the **principal parts** of each sentence and their **modifiers**, as in the preceding exercise.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. All the bells ring mournfully. | 8. He probably came here lately. |
| 2. Some faces look very sad. | 9. Those stories are hardly credible. |
| 3. The whistle always shrieks wildly. | 10. The sun always shines brightly somewhere. |
| 4. The summons is quite welcome. | 11. Most early navigators were very venturesome. |
| 5. This spot is delightfully cool. | 12. I have been too idle heretofore. |
| 6. Such bright days rarely come. | |
| 7. The officers were criminally negligent. | |

since that is not only a part of the predicate, but is also related to the subject. The predicate noun is distinguished from the predicate adjective by placing the *wavy line first*.

Every subject-modifier of whatever kind is to be enclosed in *curves* (), every verb-modifier in *brackets* [], and every complement-modifier in *angles* ().

Independent expressions are to be left unmarked.

2. Copy each sentence, underline the base, and mark the modifiers. Put verb-modifiers in brackets []. Thus:—

(Those) ships [frequently] make (long) voyages.

We are [never] (entirely) alone.

3. Write four sentences illustrating the use of adverbs as *modifiers* of different parts of the base.

3. ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB-PHRASES.

130. We have built up a sentence by modifying the base with adjectives and adverbs. The next step will be to give to these added words *modifiers of their own*.

Thus, instead of *high, always, and many*, in —

High winds always injure many trees,

we may modify each with an adverb (§§ 78, 79), and say, —

Unusually high winds almost always destroy very many trees.

Here it is easy to see that “destroy,” for instance, is modified not by **always** alone, but by the phrase **almost always**, since the adverb **almost** is added to show that we do not mean *quite* always.

How is “winds” modified? “Trees”? Does **very many** take the place of an adjective or an adverb? What may adverbs modify?

(a) These little *phrases* (“unusually high,” etc.) are used as modifiers very much like single words; and when a noun or a verb has several modifiers, some of them may be words and some phrases. Thus:—

Some | large | thrifty | rather graceful | trees.

They unexpectedly came slowly and very quietly.

EXERCISE 118.

1. Give the **base** of each sentence and its **modifiers**. Select the modifiers that are phrases, and tell whether they are like **adjectives** or like **adverbs**.

1. Very few persons are perfectly happy.
2. We beheld the dark blue sky.
3. Will forgetful boys become good business men?
4. He displayed intensely disagreeable manners.
5. Hereafter I shall study more diligently.
6. Some rather dull boys have become very famous men.

2. Copy, and mark the base and modifiers. Thus:—

(This) (same) person [very recently] made (a) (rather tiresome) speech.

3. Write four sentences containing **modified adjectives** and **modified adverbs**.

131. 1. An adjective with all that modifies it is called an **Adjective phrase**.

2. An adverb with all that modifies it is called an **Adverb-phrase**.

(a) When an adjective or an adverb takes a modifier *of any sort*, we have a phrase; as, beautiful in color, suitable for driving, where an adjective is modified by a prepositional phrase (§ 132); also, a little cautiously, ten feet further, where an adverb is modified by a noun-phrase (§ 149).

4. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

132. There are several other kinds of modifying expressions which have the meaning and use of adjectives and adverbs.

133. A **Prepositional Phrase** may always be used like an adjective or adverb. Thus:—

As part of the *base*, like a predicate adjective:

Our utensils were of wood (= wooden).

These savages are from Africa (= African).

As modifiers :

The low mountains (*of Vermont*) contain marble.

The layers, or beds, extend [*for miles*].

They show great differences (*in color*).

I am happy (*beyond measure*).

Burns was a man (*of genius*).

What part of the base does each phrase modify? What modifiers are there besides the phrases?

EXERCISE 119.

1. Copy, underline the **base**, and mark the **modifiers**, as in preceding exercises.

1. The boyhood of Garfield was spent in poverty.
2. The path of industry is the path to success.
3. The needle of the compass may not always point toward the north.
4. The invention of letters was attributed to the Phoenicians.
5. The Queen of Sheba saw the wisdom of Solomon.
6. Twenty slaves were brought to Virginia in 1619.
7. Lincoln emancipated the slaves in 1863.
8. The weight of evidence is against you.
9. A dull, heavy cloud of vapor hangs gloomily in the sky above our heads.

2. How many words are essential to make a prepositional phrase? Of what kind must they be? In the ninth sentence, how many modifiers has "cloud"? How many has "hangs"?

134. Modified Prepositional Phrases. The *base* of the phrase, that is, the preposition with its object alone, does not always make a *complete* modifier, any more than does an adjective or an adverb alone. Thus:—

"**Wise** men" means the same as "men of **wisdom**," but "**very wise** men" would mean "men of **great wisdom**,"—where a modifier is added to the object: Many of the prepositions were formerly adverbs, and accordingly they too sometimes have modifiers, as in "**far** above the fall," "**a moment** before the time."

EXERCISE 120.

1. In the sentence—

The state is rich in pine forests,

what modifies the complement “rich”? How is the object of the preposition modified?

2. If we change the sentence to—

The state is rich (in forests of pine),

how is the complement modified? What modifies “forests”?

3. In the sentence—

They lived [on mountains of great height],

what are the prepositional phrases? What does the second one modify? What does the adjective modify? What modifies “lived”?

135. The examples in the preceding exercise show how the object of a preposition may be modified; and we must remember that a noun *may always have modifiers*, no matter how or where it is used.

(a) A modifier of any part of the base may be called a *primary* modifier; a modifier of what is already a modifier may be called a *secondary* modifier.

EXERCISE 121.

1. Give the **base** of each phrase; i.e., the leading **preposition** and its **object**, and tell how each object is modified.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| 1. in the near future. | 7. along the shores of the broad Pacific. |
| 2. without many friends. | 8. near the sources of the longest river of Africa. |
| 3. after very long delay. | 9. after a cold, cheerless journey in the rain. |
| 4. with few signs of failure. | 10. two mounds of snow between. |
| 5. the icy, rattling crags among. | |
| 6. in the centre of the solar system. | |

2. **Write sentences** containing the foregoing phrases. Underline the base of each, and mark its modifiers as in preceding exercises.

3. Write six sentences in which prepositional phrases are used to modify the *three* different parts of the base.

Changes of Form to Modify Meaning.

EXERCISE 122.

1. In the expression —

a tree surrounded by trees,

would you say that the same noun occurs twice, or that there are two nouns almost alike? What difference do you see? Is there a difference in sound? What is the difference in meaning?

2. Select the forms in this list that are used when **only one** is meant:—

cloud	man	horses	stage	rose
feet	children	foot	judges	monkeys
fly	knives	flies	clock	pen
flood	rivers	men	fire	monks

3. Which of them are used when we speak of **more than one**?

136. We see from the preceding exercise that a noun may be modified not only by adding a word, but also by **changing its form** according as it applies to one or to more than one.

One form is called the **Singular**, because it applies to a *single* one only. The other form is called the **Plural**, because it applies to *more* than one. Thus:—

SINGULAR: head, eye, face, dress, foot.

PLURAL: heads, eyes, faces, dresses, feet.

137. The **Plural** is generally made by adding **s** or **es** to the singular.

EXERCISE 123.

About each of the following words say whether it is **singular** or **plural**, and then give the other form:—

vane	basin	halves	children	Germans
sponges	potato	taxes	turkeys	pailfuls
mason	niece	sheaves	grass	nephew
swords	crutch	mosquitoes	women	dishes
brushes	lilies	glasses	kisses	geese
matches	oxen	men	knives	chimneys

5. POSSESSIVES: MODIFIERS OF ANOTHER KIND.

138. Sometimes a word is adjective *by nature*, like those we have been studying; but a word that seems to be something else may be also adjective *by use*.

In these sentences —

Edward's bicycle has just broken down,
They heard the horse's hoofs,
Your yacht was in the race;

can you find any words *used* like adjectives? Do they seem at all like nouns or verbs? To whom did the bicycle belong? What hoofs were heard? Who owned the yacht?

139. Such words as **Edward's**, **horse's**, **your** are called **Possessives** because, if the statements just made are true, we can say —

Edward had, or "possessed," a bicycle.
The horse had, or "possessed," hoofs,
You had, or "possessed," a yacht;

and we see that they are really *nouns* or *pronouns* changed a little from the common form, and *used like adjectives* to describe the thing mentioned by showing to whom or to what it belongs.

EXERCISE 124.

1. Mention all the **possessives**, and tell what nouns they modify:—

1. England's navy is very powerful.
2. Men's good deeds may live forever.

3. Children's manners show their training.
4. Napoleon ended his days at St. Helena.
5. We decorate her grave with flowers.
6. Your money will be used for soldiers' monuments.
7. Is there a proverb about kings' daughters?
8. Greenland's warm climate is its greatest treasure.
9. Winter's rude tempests are gathering now.
10. Wisdom's ways are ways of pleasantness.
11. You'll find hornets' nests there.
12. Does Ecuador's largest coin equal our double eagle?

2. Change the possessive nouns to **prepositional phrases**, thus :—

"Greenland's climate" means "The climate of Greenland."

3. **Analyze** the sentences by marking base and modifiers.

4. **Write** four sentences containing **possessives** as modifiers of subject and object.

140. To make the possessive form, *nouns* commonly take an apostrophe and s ['s]; but if an s has already been added to make the word plural, they take only an apostrophe [']. [The *pronouns* are changed in various ways: **you, your; they, their; he, his; I, my; she, her, etc.**]

EXERCISE 125.

Give the **possessive forms** of each noun. To which should you add only an apostrophe? Why?

fox	man	thief	deer	valley
foxes	men	thieves	scissors	valleys
armies	wives	sister	Mr. Davis	woe
army	wife	sisters	Miss Kelly	heroes
calves	staff	house	torches	gentlemen
calf	mice	houses	monarch	juries
lady	sheaf	fishes	jury	children
ladies	Charles	Mary	Frances	Helen
ox	James	Rufus	Agnes	mouse
oxen	Mrs. Jones	teeth	eye-tooth	brothers

141. A *Possesstve* is a special form of a noun or a pronoun used like an adjective to show *whose* property is meant. [§ 209.]

6. APPOSITIVES: NOUNS USED AS SECOND NAMES.

142. Another sort of modifier appears in this example:

This man is James Hooper, treasurer.

How is the noun **man** modified? What word describes James Hooper?

The nouns **James Hooper** and **treasurer** evidently refer to the same person, and we understand that James Hooper *is treasurer*. So, speaking of two men *who are machinists*, we might say:—

Hardy and Greene, **machinists**, have just failed.

EXERCISE 126.

In the following sentences:—

My brother Rudolphus is coming home.

My cousin, Osmund, went round the world.

I, William, am to be married.

Wm. Shakespeare, poet, died in 1616.

Wm. Shakespeare, confectioner, lives in D street.

We had reached the great wheat market, Chicago.

what word shows which brother is meant? Which show who is meant by "Wm. Shakespeare"? By "I"? What is the use of the word "Osmund"? In the sixth find two names for one thing.

143. A noun is often added to another noun to describe or explain its meaning, when one name is not enough.

The noun thus added is called an **appositive**, and is just as much a modifier as an adjective is, though, unlike an adjective, it almost always *follows* the word it modifies.

The word *appositive* means "put by the side of."

EXERCISE 127.

1. Select the **appositives**, and tell to what words they refer.

1. The historian Macaulay wrote "The Lays of Ancient Rome."
2. The river Nile overflows its banks annually.
3. The sixth month, July, was named in honor of Julius Cæsar.
4. The children's favorite was the monster elephant, "Jumbo."
5. The New England festival, Thanksgiving, comes in November.
6. The capital of New Hampshire, Concord, is on the Merrimac.
7. We boys have neglected our lessons.
8. She advised us girls to be patient.
9. You carpenters have a busy life.

2. Make sentences, using the first five appositives as subjects modified by appositives.

3. Fill the blanks with appositives.

1. The poet — wrote *Hiawatha*.
2. We have all read the new book —.
3. The Quaker city — is on the Delaware.
4. The most useful of metals — may be found almost anywhere.
5. Our teacher — is interested in our welfare.
6. The queen of England — has reigned fifty years.
7. The largest island of all — is generally called a continent.
8. The governor of this state — lives at the capital —.
9. The largest city in the world — is on the river —.

144. An *Appositive* is a second name added to a noun or a pronoun to explain or describe what is meant.

(a) Adjectives are often used appositively (§ 345); pronouns only in special cases (§ 320).

145. Many common family names arose from the use of appositives; for it often happened, many years ago, that each of several men went by the same name until people began to distinguish them by their trades.

Thus, there might have been three Johns, called "John, carpenter," "John, mason," and "John, tailor." These gradually became their

true names, and they are written nowadays John Carpenter, John Mason, John Taylor.

Can you tell how your own name originated?

7. POSSESSIVE AND APPOSITIVE PHRASES.

146. Possessive and appositive phrases will be easy for us to understand because, like adjective and adverb-phrases, they are only possessives and appositives, with their modifiers.

147. We must remember that possessives and appositives are only *used* like adjectives; they are not what we *call* adjectives, but are really nouns or pronouns. Hence they have the same modifiers that other nouns and pronouns have.

Thus, instead of *girls' hair*, we might wish to speak of

this girl's hair,

or of

a young Japanese girl's hair,

using possessive phrases in which the adjectives **this**, **a**, **young**, and **Japanese** all modify the possessive **girl's**.

So with appositives:—

Johnny, **the newsboy**, is passing by.

My companion, **an old friend from Ohio**, was very entertaining.

Now the golden sun, **the day's bright eye**, is shining.

Here **the**, **an**, **old**, and **from Ohio** are added to the appositives as secondary modifiers. **Eye** is modified by the adjective **bright**, and by the possessive phrase **the day's**.

EXERCISE 128.

Tell which phrases in the following are **appositive**, and which **possessive**; and give the modifiers in each phrase.

1. Charles Dickens, the great English novelist, died in 1870.

2. The Moon, the satellite of the Earth, is about two thousand miles in diameter.

3. In 1807, Robert Fulton, an American engineer, sailed the first steamboat, the *Clermont*, on the Hudson.

4. Benjamin Franklin, a distinguished American statesman, was born in Boston in 1706.

5. Who would disregard a loving mother's counsel?

6. The brave colonel's reply was, "I'll try, sir."

7. Whittier, the Quaker poet, wrote *Snow Bound, a Winter Idyl*.

8. Nathaniel Hawthorne, author of *The Marble Faun*, was born in Salem.

9. Cortez, the conqueror of Mexico, was a Spaniard.

10. Remember your last year's experiences.

11. This is a debt of many years' standing.

12. Now comes the morning star, day's harbinger.

2. **Analyze** the preceding sentences by copying and marking.

148. Punctuation. RULE. — *Appositive words and phrases must generally be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.*

For examples, see preceding exercises.

EXERCISE 129.

Make sentences containing these words, **modified by appositive words or phrases.**

Gen. Grant	Harrisburg	author	Chicago
steamboat	David	inventor	Amazon

8. NOUNS OR NOUN-PHRASES USED ADVERBIALY.

149. We have seen that nouns, either with or without modifiers, may be used as subjects of verbs, as objects of prepositions, as possessives, and as appositives. But from expressions like these:—

Wait a day.	Two miles wide.	Some time hence.
Come this way.	A little sooner.	An hour after dark.

we learn that—

150. Noun-phrases may be used like adverbs, showing *when, how much*, etc., to modify verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions.

EXERCISE 130.

Select the **nouns used adverbially**, and tell what they modify.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. They sail next week. 2. He'll fight you tooth and nail. 3. You look better this way. 4. How many degrees warmer is it? 5. It goes four miles an hour. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Come a day sooner or a month later. 7. She stopped a mile above the fall. 8. We saw them many times last year. |
|--|---|

SUMMARY: MODIFIERS.

151. We now understand how it is that a simple sentence may be very long; for we must often modify a word again and again before we can express exactly what we mean.

The *simplest modifiers for each part of speech* are given below:—

NOUNS and PRONOUNS	} may have for modifiers	1. An Adjective	{ word or phrase.
		2. A Prepositional phrase.	
		3. A Possessive	{ word or phrase.
		4. An Appositive	{ word or phrase.

VERBS, ADJECTIVES, and ADVERBS	} may } have for } modifiers	1. An Adverb	{ word or phrase.
		2. A Prepositional phrase.	
		3. A Noun	{ word or phrase.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Name and define three kinds of verbs. 2. What is the meaning of "transitive"? 3. Of "copulative"? 4. What is a complement? 5. Why do we call objects of verbs "complements"? 6. Write sentences showing three kinds of complements. 7. Of what may the base of a sentence consist? 8. What is a modifier? 9. What is an adjective phrase? 10. Name four kinds of subject modifiers. 11. By what may a verb or an adjective be modified? 12. What parts of speech may an adverb modify? 13. Write sentences showing possessive and appositive modifiers. 14. Give the rule for punctuating appositives. 15. What parts of speech are not used as modifiers?

CHAPTER VI.

SENTENCE-ANALYSIS.

REVIEW EXERCISE. 131.

1. Mention the three classes into which sentences are divided according to meaning. 2. What is a simple sentence? 3. A compound sentence? 4. Into what may every compound sentence be separated? 5. Every simple sentence? 6. Into what may every enlarged subject be separated? 7. Every enlarged predicate? 8. Name the *two* elements that may form the base of a sentence. 9. The *three* elements. 10. What parts of speech may form a complement? 11. What is a modifier?

152. While studying the building up of sentences we have had some practice in **Analysis**, or the taking apart of sentences; for we have pointed out their principal parts, and have shown how each is modified.

153. *Analysis* is the process of separating a sentence into its parts, and of showing what they have to do with one another.

154. Method. If, in analyzing a simple or a compound sentence, we treat modifying phrases as single words, the structure of it can be made clear either orally or in writing, by telling in this order —

1. The **kind** of sentence.
2. The kind of sentences **united to form it**.
3. The **base** of the *first* assertion, question, or command.
4. The **subject** and its **modifiers**.
5. The **verb** and its **modifiers**.
6. The **complement** and its **modifiers**.
7. The **base** of the *second*, — **subject, verb, complement**.
8. The **conjunctions**.
9. The **independent expressions**.

Model for Analysis. "*A fool speaks all his mind, but a wise man reserves something for hereafter.*"

1. This is a **compound assertive** sentence,
2. Formed by uniting **two simple** assertions.
3. The **base** of the first assertion is *fool speaks mind*.
4. The **subject** *fool* is modified by the adjective *a*.
5. The **verb** *speaks* is modified only by its object *mind*.
6. The **object** *mind* is modified by the adjective *all*, and by the possessive *his*.
7. The **base** of the second assertion is *man reserves something*.
8. The **subject** *man* is modified by the adjectives *a* and *wise*.
9. The **verb** *reserves* is modified by the prepositional phrase *for hereafter*.
10. The **object** *something* is unmodified.
11. The **conjunction** *but* unites the two assertions.

155. A phrase may be analyzed by telling —

1. Its **kind**.
2. What it **modifies**.
3. Its **base** (i.e. the word from which it is named, and the complement of it, if there is one).
4. The **modifiers** of the **base**.

Thus, in the sentence —

De Soto (the discoverer of the Mississippi) was buried [in its waters], —

we may say that *the discoverer of the Mississippi* is —

1. An **appositive** phrase,
2. **Modifying** the noun *De Soto*.
- 3 and 4. The **base** *discoverer* is modified by the adjective *the* and by the prepositional phrase *of the Mississippi*.

EXERCISE 132.

1. **Analyze** the sentences in Exercises 79, 121, 128.
2. Analyze the *phrases* in the same Exercises.

156. A simple form of written analysis is that already given on page 79. Thus:—

(A) fool speaks (all) (his) mind, | but | (a) (wise) man reserves
something [for hereafter].
+

157. Abbreviations for Written Analysis.¹ Instead of writing out an analysis in full, the following abbreviations may be used to designate the subject, verb, and complement, with their modifiers:—

SA. Simple Assertive Sentence.	C. Complement.
SQ. Simple Interrogative Sentence.	O. Object.
SI. Simple Imperative Sentence.	SC. Subjective Complement.
CA. Compound Assertive Sentence.	PA. Predicate Adjective.
CQ. Compound Interrogative Sentence.	PN. Predicate Noun.
CI. Compound Imperative Sentence.	M. Modifier.
B. Base.	aj. adjective.
A. Assertion.	ajph. adjective phrase.
Q. Question.	ap. appositive.
Com. Command.	apph. appositive phrase.
S. Subject.	av. adverb.
V. Verb.	avph. adverb-phrase.
	pph. prepositional phrase.
	pos. possessive.
	posph. possessive phrase.
	nph. noun-phrase.
	conj. conjunction.

2A., 3A., etc., show *how many* assertions there are.

A¹, A², etc., indicate *first* assertion, *second* assertion, etc.

EXAMPLE. "A fool speaks all his mind, but a wise man reserves something for hereafter."

1. CA. = 2A.

2. B. of A¹. = *fool speaks mind.*

¹ To make a written analysis as full as an oral one involves much time, unless some system of abbreviations is used. Those here given, though in part arbitrary, are chiefly initial letters, and have been found easy to learn.

3. M. of S. *fool* = aj. *a*.
4. M. of V. *speaks* = O. *mind*.
5. M. of O. *mind* = aj. *all*; pos. *his*.
6. B. of A². = *man reserves something*.
7. M. of S. *man* = ajs. *a, wise*.
8. M. of V. *reserves* = pph. *for hereafter*.
9. M. of O. *something* = ———
10. A¹. and A². joined by conj. *and*.

NOTE. For the analysis of complex sentences, and for the treatment of all kinds of modifiers, see §§ 307, 587, 592, 595.

EXERCISE 133.

Copy the following model carefully, and explain all the marks and abbreviations used:—

“ [Here] rests (his) head [upon the lap of earth],
 (A) youth (to fortune and to fame unknown): |
 (Fair) Science frowned [not] [on his humble birth], |
 And | Melancholy marked him [for her own].”
 +

1. CA. = 3A.
2. B. of A¹. = *youth rests head*.
3. M. of S. *youth* = aj. *a*; ajph. *unknown to fortune and to fame*.
4. M. of V. *rests* = av. *here*; pph. *upon the lap of earth*.
5. M. of O. *head* = pos. *his*.
6. B. of A². = *Science frowned*.
7. M. of S. *Science* = aj. *fair*.
8. M. of V. *frowned* = av. *not*; pph. *on his humble birth*.
9. B. of A². = *Melancholy marked him*.
10. M. of V. *marked* = pph. *for her own*.
11. A². and A³. joined by conj. *and*.

EXERCISE 134.

1. Analyze in full, either orally or in writing, according to the preceding models.

1. The first step toward greatness is honesty.
2. Hope is an anchor to the soul.

3. Trifles often lead to serious results.
4. The logwood tree is a native of Central America.
5. The camphor gum of commerce is the product of a species of laurel.
6. The gum is deposited in tiny crystals in the wood of the tree.
7. By the next morning the wind had increased to a gale.
2. **Analyze** in the same way the sentences in Exercise 113.

Inverted Order.

158. Although the form and the meaning of the words that make a sentence help us to understand the construction of it, yet we depend chiefly upon the **arrangement** of its parts, which is commonly much the same in different sentences.

The usual order, however, is often changed or **inverted** for the sake of emphasis or clearness, and, in poetry, for many other reasons.

EXERCISE 135.

1. Where is a *complement* usually placed? 2. What is the usual position of the *modifiers of a verb*? Give examples. 3. Does an *adjective* generally precede its noun or follow it? 4. Are *possessives* and *appositives* used before or after the words they modify? 5. What modifiers may an adjective have? Give examples to show the usual order. 6. When one *adverb* modifies another, where is it placed? 7. Where are *prepositions* and *conjunctions* placed?

159. The subject often follows the verb —

(a) In assertive sentences, as: —

Flashed all their sabres bare. Dark was the night. Fiercely blew the wintry wind. Down the hillside ran a brook. There was a dense fog. There is no help for us.

(b) In interrogative sentences, especially when the interrogative word forms no part of the subject; as in, —

Were others present? Whom did you see? When shall we be free? Which island do the French own? For what are they contending? Is there no hope?

Such sentences of course almost always begin with the interrogative expression, whether pronoun, adjective, adverb, or prepositional phrase.

(c) In sentences expressing a condition or a wish, like, —

Were that to happen, I could not go. May nothing prevent. May there be enough for all.

As shown in these examples, it is not the verb that is ordinarily put first in inverted sentences, but rather some complement or modifier of it, if there is one. And, as shown in the last examples in each group, we frequently begin a sentence with the adverb "there," when it is pronounced ther, and used without much of its original meaning.

When the real subject follows the verb, the temporary subject "it" often precedes; as, It is best to wait. (§ 303.)

EXERCISE 136.

1. **Read** each sentence, and show by your pronunciation of "there" whether it means "in that place," or has no definite meaning.

2. **Transpose**, putting the subject first, without changing the pronunciation of "there."

1. There goes the new boat. 2. There the pilot stands to watch her. 3. There will be no sorrow there. 4. There stood my old friend. 5. There are a thousand here. 6. There was darkness over all the land. 7. There can be no success without effort.

160. When there is reason for the change, **modifiers** of almost every kind may be placed in inverted order, or they may be separated from that part of the sentence to which they belong; *e.g.*: —

A maiden **fair**. And I **the victor** slew. Lean thou this staff **upon**. **Slowly** the day declines. **For us** the sun ne'er sets.

In analysis, we must be careful to **transpose** every part to its more usual place.

(a) When modified by a phrase, an adjective usually follows its noun. Thus, we say, "a man ready for work," not "a ready for work man."

EXERCISE 137.

1. Read each of the following sentences, **transpose** into the usual order, and explain what changes you make.

2. Copy, and analyze by marking thus:—

[Up the hill] <his> horse he [hotly] urged.

1. Here ends the tale. 2. Many are our faults. 3. A mighty king was he. 4. Of years ago I'm dreaming. 5. The queen hath him offended. 6. Of many men the names he knew. 7. To pastures new press we now eagerly on. 8. Within my garden bloomed a lily tall. 9. Through the dark defile wound the long battalion slowly. 10. Here once the embattled farmers stood. 11. Lightly from bough to bough fluttered the birds in the tree-tops. 12. A vision bright at dead of night I saw. 13. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

EXERCISE 138.

1. Read and **transpose** as in Ex. 137.

2. Copy and make a **written analysis** as in § 157.

1. Somewhere the birds are singing evermore.
2. Pleasantly rose the sun on the village of Grand-Pré.
3. Under the spreading chestnut-tree
The village smithy stands.
4. Down the broad valley, fast and far,
The troubled army fled.
5. There wandered a noble Moslem boy
Through the scene of beauty in breathless joy.
6. Safely through another week
God has brought us on our way.
7. Softly now the light of day
Fades upon my sight away.

EXERCISE 139.

Analyze the following sentences in full, or with abbreviations, or by marking :—

1. The human body is a study for one's whole life.
2. Betwixt eyes and nose a strange contest arose.
3. The streams of small pleasures fill the lake of happiness.
4. The fate of empires depends upon the education of youth.
5. How use doth breed a habit in a man!
6. The first and greatest end of education is the discipline of the mind.
7. In the course of our reading we should lay up in our minds a store of goodly thoughts in well-wrought words.
8. The robin and the bluebird fill all the blossoming orchards with their glee, and the joyous skylark gives out a flood of song among the clouds.
9. Here rest the great and good in lowly graves.
10. Many persons have no ear for music; but every one has an ear for skilful reading.
11. The ruby-throated humming-bird—the loveliest one of the whole family—is a native of the Southern States.
12. On the quarter-deck of the flag-ship stood Admiral Sir John Narborough, the first seaman in all England.
13. In the market-place of Bruges stands the belfry old and brown.
14. Study wisdom, and you will reap pleasure.
15. Laziness grows on people; it begins in cobwebs, and it ends in iron chains.
16. Among the pitfalls in our way
The best of us walk blindly.
17. Duty points; with outstretched fingers,
Every soul to action high.
18. Oft on the trampling band, from crown
Of some tall cliff, the deer look down.
19. To every man upon this earth
Death cometh soon or late.
20. Around this lovely valley rise
The purple hills of Paradise.

21. O softly on yon bank of haze
Her rosy face the summer lays.
22. Through all the long midsummer day
The meadow sides are sweet with hay.
23. Lack of occupation is not rest ;
A mind quite vacant is a mind distressed.
24. Silently, one by one, in the infinite meadows of heaven,
Blossomed the lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the angels.
25. The master of the district school,
Brisk wielder of the birch and rule,
Held at the fire his favored place.
26. Strong is thy dwelling-place, and thou puttest thy nest in
a rock.
27. Across the unknown western sea the daring Genoese saw another route to India.
28. In the most distant hamlet beyond the mountains, in the lonely cabin by the sea, eyes were turned to this place with anxious longings.
29. During the distress of the American army, Mr. Venable, an army commissioner, took from Mr. Hook, a Scotchman, two steers for the use of the troops.
30. Is it the palm, the cocoa-palm,
On the Indian sea, by the isles of balm ?
31. In the elder days of Art,
Builders wrought with greatest care
Each minute and unseen part ;
For the gods see everywhere.
32. The roll of drum and the bugle's wailing
Vex the air of our hills no more.
33. Bring down, O lowland river,
The joy of the hills to the waiting sea.
34. Hands of angels, unseen by mortal eyes, shifted the scenery of the heavens ; the glories of night dissolved into the glories of the dawn.
35. Early to-morrow morning bring roses dewy and fresh, for each fair maid shall be a fairy dame, full of wit and dainty-eyed ; then for them all there'll be garlands of roses.

CHAPTER VII.

NOUNS.

REVIEW EXERCISE. 140.

1. What is a noun? 2. If a word stands as subject of a sentence, to what parts of speech may it belong? 3. What if it is the object of a verb or of a preposition? 4. What do you call a word that is modified by an adjective? 5. How do you tell whether a word is a noun or not?

6. What kinds of words or phrases may modify a noun? 7. Use "store" as the subject of a sentence, and give it two or three modifiers. 8. Use "president" as an object, and modify it by a prepositional phrase and an appositive.

A. KINDS.

1. PROPER NOUNS.

161. We cannot always use nouns correctly in sentences, without having some regard to the classes into which they are divided according to their *meaning*.

EXERCISE 141.

1. (a) Does the name "gulf" always stand for the same body of water? (b) To how many parts of a year may the word "month" apply? (c) To how many does the word "April" apply?

2. About each of the following nouns say whether it may represent *any one of several* things, or is meant to be the special name of one individual.

river	Amazon	city	Berlin
mountain	Vesuvius	ocean	Atlantic
continent	Africa	dog	Bruno
orator	Webster	month	August
explorer	Stanley	star	Jupiter
holiday	Christmas	book	<i>Jo's Boys</i>

3. (a) Which word in each of the following groups applies to the greatest number? (b) Which to the least? (c) Which are names for every one of a certain class? (d) Which are "given names"? (e) Name another individual of each class.

man	soldier	animal	gentleman
author	officer	quadruped	scholar
poet	general	elephant	teacher
Bryant	Sheridan	Jumbo	Dr. Arnold

162. Some nouns, such as "man" or "water," represent a thing as *being of a certain kind* or class, without showing which particular one or which part is meant. Other nouns are names given to designate *a particular individual*.

Thus the noun *man* may apply to any one of millions of persons, but the name **William E. Gladstone** applies to one person only. The name *city* is held in common by hundreds of places, because they are in some respects alike; but **Philadelphia, Chicago, Boston**, are names given to certain cities, to be, as it were, their exclusive property.

163. A name held in common by all of a kind is called a **Common noun**; and a special name given to one individual *for its own* is called a **Proper noun**.

"Proper" is derived from a word meaning *one's own*.

EXERCISE 142.

Select the nouns that describe persons or things according to their **qualities**, and give the meaning of each.

city	river	air	surveyor	clay
territory	bay	star	lawyer	bricks
mountain	navigator	planet	president	stone
Washington	Hudson	Jupiter	Lincoln	The Sphinx

164. Common nouns, such as *clock, kitchen, tree, glass, putty, oysters, weight, writing, mercy*, have meanings that **describe** things and show what they are **by nature**.

Proper nouns, as we use them, have no longer any meaning in themselves, and like the word *Dick*, which may name a horse, a man, a boy, a dog, or a bird, they serve only to **designate one** person, place, or thing.

We can judge by looking at an object what *common* nouns to apply to it; but if it has a *proper* name, that must be learned in some other way.

EXERCISE 143.

1. Tell which of these nouns are **common** and which **proper**:—

King	Solomon	Temper	Music	Paris
Rome	Eagle	Shasta	Noise	Samuel
Ocean	Peru	Mitchell	Piano	Riches
War	Beauty	Warden	Mozart	Mercy
Christian	Turk	Italian	Democrat	Saint

2. Does the last word in each column show *what sort* of person is meant? If so, these words are common nouns.

165. Sometimes the same name is held by several persons or places without showing that they are alike. Thus:—

The four **Allens** lived in four different **Watervilles**.

166. A Proper Noun is a special name meant for only one individual.

All other nouns are *common* nouns.

167. A Common Noun is a general name for any or all of a certain kind.

168. Capitals. RULE. — *Proper nouns and words formed from them must begin with capitals.*

(a) *When a proper name is made up of several parts, each one must begin with a capital.* Thus:—

John Greenleaf Whittier; the Duke of Brunswick.

EXERCISE 144.

1. Write the special or **proper** names of several individuals in each of the following classes:—

River; town; volcano; governor; king; author; country; planet; queen; dog; historian; state; yacht; month; painter; poet; capital; president; book; inventor.

2. What are the people called who live in the following places? Thus:—

"Canada," Canadians; "Genoa," Genoese.

Canada; Genoa; Cuba; Spain; Venice; Italy; Europe; Mexico; Brazil; Burmah; China; Japan; Malta; Norway; Boston.

2. GENDER-NOUNS.

169. Among the nouns that name *living beings*, many names show to which sex a person belongs; as, —

Edward, Mary, Margaret;

and we sometimes find two nouns with no difference in meaning, except that one of them denotes a **male** and the other a **female**; as, —

prince, princess; son, daughter; John, Jane.

170. All such nouns are called **Gender-nouns**, because they show *which sex* is meant. Those that by their form denote males are said to be **masculine**, or of the masculine gender; those that denote females are said to be **feminine**, or of the feminine gender.

171. (a) Sometimes the correlative gender-nouns are similar in form, the feminine ending in **-ess**. Thus:—

abbot, abbess;	governor, governess;	master, mistress;
actor, actress;	heir, heiress;	negro, negress;
baron, baroness;	host, hostess;	priest, priestess;
count, countess;	Jew, Jewess;	prince, princess;
duke, duchess;	lad, lass; ¹	prophet, prophetess;
emperor, empress;	lion, lioness;	shepherd, shepherdess;
god, goddess;	marquis, marchioness;	tiger, tigress.

172. (b) Some words from foreign languages are changed in other ways. Thus:—

administrator, administra- trix;	hero, heroine;	Francis, Frances;
beau, belle;	sultan, sultana;	Henry, Henrietta;
czar, czarina;	testator, testatrix;	Joseph, Josephine;
executor, executrix;	Augustus, Augusta;	Louis, Louisa;
	Charles, Charlotte;	Paul, Paulina.

173. (c) Sometimes the feminine is a wholly different word from its corresponding masculine. Thus:—

bachelor, maid;	lord, lady;	stag, hind;
earl, countess;	monk or friar, nun;	wizard, witch;
king, queen;	sir, madam;	youth, maiden.

In *widower*, *widow*, the masculine is made from the feminine.

174. (d) Sometimes the first part of a compound word serves merely to show which sex is meant. Thus:—

he-goat, she-bear, man-servant.

175. (e) With most nouns, however, the same form is used for both sexes, and words like *poet*, *editor*, *doctor*, *author* may refer to a person of either sex, just as do *parent*, *child*, *friend*, *cousin*.

EXERCISE 145.

1. (a) Which of the following nouns do not show sex? **(b)** Tell whether the gender-nouns are **masculine** or **feminine**, and give the corresponding word of opposite gender, if there is one.

Cousin; clerk; Edward; duchess; president; bridegroom; printer; empress; cashier; peacock; child; cook; czar; lass; widow; secretary; sultana; servant; nun; artist; spinster; aunt; goose; abbot; maiden; husband; roe; hen; landlord; laundress.

¹ Contracted.

2. Give as many general names as you can for relatives of both sexes; as, *uncle, aunt*.

176. A **Gender-noun** is one that shows by its form which sex is meant.

3. COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

EXERCISE 146.

1. What is the difference between a soldier and an army? 2. A ship and a fleet? 3. A singer and a choir? 4. Of what is a jury made up? 5. A flock? 6. A school?

177. Some nouns, even in the singular form, may be plural in meaning, and are called **Collective nouns**, because they denote a collection of individuals.

EXERCISE 147.

Fill the blanks so as to show *of what* each collection is composed:—

1. A regiment of —. 2. A crew of —. 3. A swarm of —.
4. A herd of —. 5. The Senate contains —. 6. A family of —.
7. A team of —. 8. A pair of —. 9. A club of —. 10. A troop of —.
11. — in the constellation. 12. — on the committee.
13. — in the tribe. 14. — in the pack. 15. — in the procession.

178. A **Collective Noun** is one that even in the singular form denotes a number of separate persons or things.

EXERCISE 148.

1. **Define** each word so as to show that it is a collective noun:—

Group; class; council; hive; multitude; jury; fleet; flock; mob; society; band; drove; couple; bevy; gang.

2. What word may be applied to a collection of —

Birds; robbers; scholars; wolves; stars; bees; cottages; emigrants; buffaloes; sailors.

3. Learn the meaning of each of these collective nouns:—

Horde; leash; brigade; corps; kennel; lodge; stud; cortege; suite; retinue.

4. MATERIAL or MASS-NOUNS.

179. There are other kinds of nouns that it is useful to notice, though they may not affect the *form* of anything we write.

180. Notice that such words as **clay, cotton, sugar, flax, brass, hay, wax, rice**, do not denote things of definite size or shape, such as can be counted, but only substances, materials, or masses, that must be measured. Hence they are called **Mass-nouns**, or **Material-nouns**.

EXERCISE 149.

1. Name some *materials* used in building. 2. Of what is the human body composed? 3. Name the various materials used in making clothing. 4. Mention ten other *mass-nouns*. 5. How many of them have you heard used in the plural? 6. Find several material nouns in Exercise 51.

181. Generally we have no need to use the plural of material nouns, but sometimes we speak of **cottons, teas, sugars, grasses**, etc., meaning different *kinds* of cotton, tea, sugar, grass, etc.; and we often use the plural when speaking of things that may disappear and come again; as,—

Snow; rain; wind; mist; vapor; fume; perfume; odor; scent; etc.

5. ABSTRACT NOUNS.

182. Nouns of the classes that we have studied represent things that *take up room* or *have weight*, including all living things and whatever is like a solid, a liquid, or a vapor.

183. *All other nouns* apply to what cannot take up room, or be weighed, or touched, or moved. Thus:—

Motion, movement, hurry, race, speed, distance, absence.

Beauty, color, freshness, brilliancy, gleam, warmth.

Harmony, music, tune, discord, sound, disturbance, war.

They are called **Abstract nouns** because they are names of qualities, etc., considered *separately* from the objects to which they belong.

"Abstract" means *drawn off, separated*.

184. Kinds. Of the many kinds of abstract nouns, the most important are—

1. Nouns that name a *quality* or a *condition*; as,—
brightness, poverty, pride, weight, flexibility.
2. Verbal nouns, which name the *action* asserted by a verb; as —
learning, rejoicing, loving, to swing, to skate.

EXERCISE 150.

1. Select from this list five **material** nouns; five names of **actions**; ten names of **qualities** or **conditions**.

weakness	industry	hoping	speed	fear
despair	temperance	heat	slumber	hunger
singing	haste	reading	dashing	coasting
glass	sleet	borax	paint	quartz

2. Tell what objects have these qualities, using adjectives to complete the assertion. Thus:—

"Glass is *transparent*."

Transparency; strength; ferocity; brilliancy; hardness; docility; courage; value; brittleness; speed; beauty; rarity; elasticity; endurance; color.

3. Name four **qualities** or **conditions** of—

wood	gold	an explorer	a good son
air	water	a gymnast	a great man
camels	music	a miser	an agreeable companion

185. An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality, a condition, or an action.

EXERCISE 151.

1. Into what **two classes** may all nouns be divided? Name four kinds of **common** nouns.

2. There are five nouns of a kind in the following list. Which of them are **proper** nouns? Which **collective**? Arrange the rest in three groups according as they are **gender**, **mass**, or **abstract** nouns.

Maryland; Great Bear; gum; legislature; Eliot; Frenchman; Englishman; skill; widower; humility; audience; veal; monk; whiskey; gypsum; slavery; Quito; knowledge; brigade; bevy; mahogany; suite; Thursday; marching; duck.

3. Select and **classify** the nouns on page 21, Part I.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Are nouns classified according to their *form* or their *meaning*?
2. Of what use is it to study the different kinds of nouns?
3. Why are some called "proper"? Is their form in any way peculiar?
4. Give some examples of collective nouns.
5. Why do we say "a key," "a pond," "a road," but not "a brass," "a water," "a gravel"?
6. Of what kind are the last three nouns?
7. What name is given to nouns that name qualities?
8. Mention four abstract nouns that do not name qualities.
9. Which nouns designate without describing?
10. Which is the largest class of nouns? Why?

B. INFLECTION:

CHANGES IN FORM FOR DIFFERENT USES.

186. Besides using adjectives or other modifiers to show just what a word represents, it is often necessary to *change the form* of the word according to its different uses or applications; *i.e.* to **inflect** it.

1. NUMBER.

187. The most common change in the form of a noun is that by which we express **Number**. [See p. 85.]

188. Most nouns have two number-forms, the *singular* and the *plural*.

The *singular* number denotes only one.

The *plural* number denotes more than one.

189. RULE I. — *Most nouns are made plural by adding s to the singular.* Thus: —

chair	valley	zero	gulf	fife	monarch	German
chairs	valleys	zeros	gulfs	fifes	monarchs	Germans

190. RULE II. — *Letters, figures, signs, etc., are made plural by adding 's.* Thus: —

Do not make your r's and v's alike. Cancel the 9's. Make the + 's and — 's larger.

EXERCISE 152.

1. (a) Is the number of syllables always the same in both singular and plural? (b) Which of these words are pronounced with an additional syllable in the plural? (c) Try to discover the reason. (d) What is the additional syllable?

House; place; pane; size; noose; plate; fire; bridge; bride; niche; name; rope; truce; pulse; fence; case; pause; force.

2. Can you tell why in making these plurals we have added **es** instead of **s** alone?

Losses; taxes; topazes; dishes; churches.

191. Some nouns end with a sound so much like that of **s** that we cannot pronounce the plural easily without making another syllable. Hence —

192. RULE III.—*Nouns ending in s, x, z, sh, or ch (soft) form the plural by adding es to the singular. Thus:—*

grass	box	topaz	wish	larch
grasses	boxes	topazes	wishes	larches

EXERCISE 153.

Write the plural of —

Pass; branch; honey; tyro; clef; safe; fez; bush; patriarch;
piano; fife; dwarf; fox; arch; medley; chimney; hoof; i and t.

193. Some nouns require other changes to be made in forming the plural.

Notice those ending in *y*. Which of them end in *y* after a consonant? What is the change in the plural?

fly	key	lily	buoy	story	tray	enemy	ditty
flies	keys	lilies	buoys	stories	trays	enemies	ditties

194. RULE IV.—*If the singular ends in y after a consonant, y becomes ie in the plural.*

Thus: Pony, *ponies*; sty, *sties*; cry, *cries*; body, *bodies*. Also, soliloquy, *soliloquies*; colloquy, *colloquies*.

NOTE. Words like *lady*, *city*, etc., formerly ended in *ie* in the singular.

195. RULE V.—*Thirteen nouns ending in f, and three in fe, form the plural in ves. They are —*

Beef, calf, elf, half, leaf, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, staff, thief, wharf, wolf; knife, life, wife. (Plural *beeves*, *calves*, *elves*; *knives*, etc.)

All other nouns in *f* or *fe* are regular, adding only *s*.

196. RULE VI.—*About forty nouns ending in o after a consonant form the plural in es.*

The most common ones are —

Buffalo, cargo, calico, echo, embargo, flamingo, hero, mosquito,

motto, mulatto, negro, potato, tomato, tornado, torpedo, volcano, veto.
(Plural *cargoes*, *echoes*, etc.)

Most nouns in *o* (several *hundred* in all) are regular, adding only *s*.

197. RULE VII.—*Nine common words always form their plural without s.* They are —

Man, *men*; ox, *oxen*; goose, *geese*; woman, *women*; foot, *feet*; mouse, *mice*; child, *children*; tooth, *teeth*; louse, *lice*.

German, Mussulman, Turcoman, ottoman, talisman, are not compounds of *man*, and form their plural in *s*.

EXERCISE 154.

Write the plural of each word:—

Jelly; ruby; fairy; glory; duty; victory; turkey; sheaf; chief; strife; money; attorney; cameo; motto; grotto; half; waif; soliloquy; alley; ally; veto; solo; mouse; memento.

198. Proper nouns, when made plural, generally follow the same rules as common nouns. Thus we write:—

All the *Beechers*; the *Adamses*; the *Alleghanies*; several *Mr. Smiths*; both the *Miss Hudsons*; the two *Gen. Johnstons*; one of the *Dr. Davises*; the *Mrs. Wrights*. But—

(a) To prevent confusion, we may make the fewest changes possible in the forms of proper nouns, and may write (for example) *the eight Henrys*, the *Marys*, the two *Miss Carys*, instead of the *Henries*, the *Maries*, the *Caries*.

(b) In referring to members of one family, or to partners in business, we may give the plural form to the title “Mr.” or “Miss” instead of to the name itself. Thus we may say—

Mr. Hayes, or the *Messrs. Hayes*; Miss Sands, or the *Misses Sands*.

(c) A title is, of course, made plural when used with several names
Thus:—

Messrs. Long and Collins; *Misses* Charlotte, Emily, and Anne Brontë; *Drs.* Brown and White; *Gens.* Lee and Jackson.

199. Most Compound words form their plural like simple words by changing the *final syllable*. Thus:—

Frenchmen; greenhouses; flag-staffs; handfuls; court-yards; major-generals; four-in-hands; forget-me-nots; jack-in-the-pulpits; three-per-cents; piano-fortes.

(a) A few compounds are made plural by changing the *first part*, which the rest of the word merely describes. Thus:—

Brothers-in-law; sisters-in-law; sons-in-law; daughters-in-law; fathers-in-law; mothers-in-law; attorneys-at-law; attorneys-general; postmasters-general; commanders-in-chief; generals-in-chief; aides-de-camp; courts-martial; cousins-german; hangers-on; lookers-on; knights-errant; men-of-war; and a few others.

(b) Occasionally *both parts* are changed, as in man-servant, *men-servants*.

EXERCISE 155.

Spell or write the plural of these words:—

Gentleman; grandmother; spoonful; son-in-law; handicraft; maid-servant; court-martial; dining-room; major-general; rope-ladder; eyelash; touch-me-not; go-between; stowaway; sailor-boy; outgoing; cupful; by-path; attorney-general; man-servant; ottoman; Englishman; flower-de-luce; will-o'-the-wisp.

200. Foreign Plurals. Many words taken without change from other languages retain their foreign plurals. Thus:—

Larva, larvæ; vertebra, vertebrae; alumnus, alumni; focus, foci; fungus, fungi, radius, radii; stratum, strata; axis, axes; crisis, crises; ellipsis, ellipses; oasis, oases, genus, genera; phenomenon, phenomena, etc.

201. Some nouns have the same form for both singular and plural meanings. We can tell the number of such nouns only by the context. Among them are—

(a) *Deer, sheep, swine, alms, gross*,—always singular in form.

(b) *Amends, means, odds, pains, wages*,—always plural in form.

(c) *Brick, cannon, heathen, head, shot, sail; grouse, salmon*, and many names of fish and of game; *brace, score, hundred*, and other words referring to number or to quantity. These have also regular plurals with a meaning different from that of the singular.

202. (a) Some nouns, from the nature of what is meant, are almost always singular. [See § 181.] As, —

Wisdom, music, temperance, honesty, etc.

(b) And some are always plural. As, —

Ashes, annals, antipodes, measles, nuptials, scissors, shears, tidings, victuals, vitals, etc.

203. (a) Some nouns are plural in form but singular in meaning. As, —

News, gallows, and words in -ics, — politics, mathematics, ethics, etc.

(b) And some, singular in form, may be plural in meaning. As, —

Army, kin, committee, and other collective nouns. Also, cattle.

204. Some nouns used in two senses have two plural forms.

brother . *brothers* (by parentage) *brethren* (by association).

cloth . . . *cloths* (kinds of cloth) *clothes* (garments).

die *dies* (for coinage, etc.) *dice* (for games).

fish *fishes* (regarded separately) . . . *fish* (collectively).

genius . . *geniuses* (men of genius) *genii* (supernatural beings).

index . . *indexes* (tables of contents) . . *indices* (algebraic signs).

pea *peas* (in definite number) . . . *pease* (by the quantity).

penny . . *pennies* (single coins) *pence* (as a value or amount).

staff . . . *staffs* (as a military term) . . . *staves* (in most senses).

stamen . *stamens* (of flowers) *stamina* (support or strength).

2. CASE.

EXERCISE 156.

1. Tell to **what part of speech** "cross" belongs in each sentence, and how you make the distinction.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. The bridges cross the stream. | 3. The emblem of the Christian |
| 2. He gave me a cross look. | religion is the cross. |

2. (a) In **what six ways** is the noun "Albert" used in these sentences?

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Albert has returned. | 4. My brother Albert is ill. |
| 2. This was Albert's book. | 5. Have you met Albert? |
| 3. Go with Albert. | 6. My name is Albert. |

- (b) **How many forms** does the noun have in these sentences?
 (c) Which use requires a special form? (d) How do the forms differ?

205. Besides having number-forms to show singular or plural meaning, nouns have also what are called **Case-forms**, according to their *use* in a sentence. But there is only one of the various uses for which a special form is required.

206. Nouns have two case-forms or **cases**, — the general or **common form**, for all uses but one; and the special or **possessive form**, used to show ownership or possession.¹

207. The **possessive form** of nouns is made by adding to the common form an apostrophe and s ['s], or an apostrophe alone ['], according to the following

RULE. — *To plural nouns ending in s add an apostrophe; to all other nouns add an apostrophe and s.* Thus: —

Day's, days'; man's, men's; lady's, ladies'; Mr. Hay's book; Mr. Hayes's house; ostrich's, ostriches'.

NOTE 1. In words ending with a sound that resembles that of *s*, the apostrophe with *s* forms an additional syllable. Thus: —

James's; Miss Finch's [pron. *James-ĕz*, *Finch-ĕz*].

NOTE 2. The only exception to the rule occurs in such expressions as *conscience's sake*, *goodness's sake*, *righteousness's sake*, *Jesus's sake*, where the apostrophe alone is added because another *s* would make too many hissing sounds.

NOTE 3. In forming the possessive of compound nouns or of noun-phrases, the possessive sign is always placed at the end. [§ 199.] Thus: —

son-in-law's, sons-in-law's;
 Martin Luther's hymn;

his brother John's death;
 William the Conqueror's reign.

¹ In our language nouns once had four cases to suit different uses, but now the common form takes the place of three of them.

EXERCISE 157.

Write the **four forms** of each of the following nouns. Thus:—

	SING.	PLUR.
<i>Common Form.</i>	child,	children;
<i>Possessive Form.</i>	child's,	children's.

Girl; woman; wife; monkey; mouse; Miss Long; lady; chief; dwarf; ox; swine; Mr. Adams; man; hero; thief; brother; deer; colony; baby; piano; fox; son-in-law; German; attorney-general.

208. The meaning of the possessive case may often be expressed by the use of the preposition **of** and its object. Thus:—

“**My** uncle's death” or “The death of **my** uncle.”

EXERCISE 158.

1. Write these expressions, using the **possessive case** instead of the prepositional phrase:—

The residence of my sister.	The singing of Miss Vokes.
The wife of my brother.	The stories of Howells.
The manners of a gentleman.	The lectures of Curtis.
A photograph of the baby.	The novels of Dickens.
The sting of a mosquito.	The mother of James.
The store of Mr. Brown.	The letters of Agnes.
The decision of the court-martial.	The army of Xerxes.
The top of the chinney.	The home of Adam.
The retreat of the enemy.	The home of Mr. Adams.

2. Write the expressions in the first column, making every noun *plural*, and then write the equivalent **possessive phrase**.

209. A possessive does not always show ownership. It may denote—

1. *Origin*; as in—“I own **Scott's** novels,” and “She uses **But-trick's** patterns.” Or—

2. *Kind*; as in—“He sells **women's** shoes and **men's** hats,” and “She has a **man's** voice.”

EXERCISE 159.

Change these expressions so as to show the meaning of the possessives:—

Children's clothing; gentlemen's gloves; Shakespeare's Plays; Edison's inventions; Harper's Ferry; my uncle's letter; Colt's revolvers; my mother's present; Harper's Magazine; Webster's speeches; Stuart's Washington.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. What is meant by inflection? Give an example.
2. How is the plural commonly made?
3. What words add *es* to form the plural?
4. Why should the plural of *money* and of *lily* be differently formed?
5. What is peculiar about the plural of nouns ending in *f*?
6. Give the plural of "court-martial" and of "handful."
7. How many case-forms have nouns?
8. How is the possessive case of nouns formed?
9. What substitute may be used for a possessive? Illustrate.
10. Pluralize the italicized phrase in, "I like *Miss Cary's* poems."

C. THE USES OF NOUNS.

EXERCISE 160.

Analyze these sentences, and tell the way in which the noun "diamond" is used in each:—

1. *Diamonds* are found in Africa and India.
2. Brazil exports *diamonds*.
3. The most precious jewel is the *diamond*.
4. The countess wore a necklace of *diamonds*.
5. The *diamond's* lustre is unsurpassed.
6. This priceless gem, the Kohinoor *diamond*, originally weighed eight hundred carats.

210. There are *eleven* different uses which nouns may have in the expression of thought. Six of these uses we already know about.

1. NOUNS AS SUBJECT.

211. A Noun may be used as **Subject** in a sentence of any sort. Thus:—

- (1) In an *assertion* or a *supposition*; as, —

The wind sways the tops of the trees.

If the leaves could stay the year round!

- (2) In a *question*; as, —

Can woodpeckers make such large holes?

- (3) In a *wish*; as, —

Heaven give you all long life.

May the forest fires never reach you.

- (4) In an *exclamation*; as, —

How the trunk has been stripped of its bark!

EXERCISE 161.

1. What nouns in Exercise 139 have the **subject use**?

2. Use these nouns, first as **subjects of assertions**, and then as **subjects of questions**:—

Milk; cocoanuts; palms; violets; vane; vein; rains; reins; Sicily; St. Louis; Mars; Mt. Blanc; Cæsar; Hudson; Cleopatra.

2. NOUNS AS SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT.

212. A Noun may be used as the **Subjective Complement** of a copulative verb or of a passive verb-phrase. [See § 450.] Thus:—

These trees *are* ancient landmarks.

The strongest man *became* the chief of the tribe.

The emperor of Russia *is styled* the Czar.

EXERCISE 162.

1. Which nouns in Exercise 139 are used as **subjective complements**?

2. **Use** these nouns as subjective complements:—

Navigators; mineral; sphere; governor; president; wanderer; emblem; capital; Rome; Europe; intemperance; Exodus; poetry.

3. NOUNS AS OBJECT.

213. A Noun may be used as the **Object** of a transitive verb or verbal word. Thus:—

The snow *bends* the branches.

By *bending* the branches the fruit may be reached.

It is not easy to *bend* the large branches.

EXERCISE 163.

1. What nouns in Exercise 139 are used as **object**?

2. **Use** these nouns as the *objects of transitive verbs*:—

Enemies; books; friends; salt; knowledge; comets; antelope; obscurity; tobacco; poppies; business; St. Lawrence; Alaska.

4. NOUNS IN PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

214. A Noun may be used in a *phrase* as the **Object** of a **preposition**. Thus:—

The shadow of the **tree** reaches *beyond* the **wall**.

EXERCISE 164.

1. Which nouns in Exercise 141 are used in making **prepositional phrases**?

2. **Use** these nouns in sentences as objects of prepositions:—

Sea; mountains; Egypt; Bible; surface; skies; alacrity; swarms; shrewdness; Nile; prison; Detroit; pole; compass; perseverance.

5. NOUNS AS POSSESSIVES.

215. A Noun may be used as a **Possessive**. Thus:—

The **Indian's** wigwam gave place to the **settler's** cabin.

This is the only use that requires a special form of the noun.

EXERCISE 165.

1. **Make a list** of the possessive nouns found on some page of your reading-book.

2. **Use** the possessive form of these words in sentences:—

Speaker; Mr. Adams; lady; bees; physician; buffalo; daisies; Agnes; heroes; men; church; conscience; grottos; major-general; guides.

Rules for the Use of Possessives.

216. Sometimes the names of several persons are treated like a single noun in forming the possessive.

Thus, if **Parker and Ward** is the name of a business firm, we treat it like a compound noun, putting the possessive sign at the end when we speak of **Parker and Ward's business** or **mills**. To say **Parker's and Ward's business** or **mills** would show that the men were in business separately, or owned different mills.

EXERCISE 166.

In the following expressions do we mean **joint** owners of the *same* thing, or **separate** owners of *different* things?

1. Hall and Whipple's hotel.
2. Elizabeth's and Mary's reign.
3. William and Mary's reign.
4. Rice and Besant's novels.
5. Bulwer's and Thackeray's novels.
6. Jackson's and Grant's administrations.
7. Taylor and Fillmore's administration.
8. Do you prefer Tennyson's or Whittier's poetry?
9. Who were Cain and Abel's parents?

217. RULE I.—(a) *To show separate possession of different things by several persons, use the possessive sign after the name of each.* But—

(b) *To show joint possession, use the sign after the last name only.*

EXERCISE 167.

1. Change these expressions so as to show **joint possession** :—

1. Gilbert's and Sullivan's operas. 2. Woodward's and Brown's pianos. 3. Warner's and Twain's *Gilded Age*. 4. Grant's and Sherman's friendship. 5. Spain's and Portugal's alliance. 6. Beaumont's and Fletcher's dramas. 7. Hay's and Nicolay's *Life of Lincoln*.

2. Change these so as to show **separate possession** :—

1. Webster and Worcester's Unabridged Dictionary. 2. Steinway and Chickering's pianos. 3. Green and Macaulay's *History of England*. 4. Webster and Worcester's dictionaries. 5. Do you prefer Greenleaf or Wentworth's arithmetics? 6. Bancroft, Prescott, and Motley's History. 7. Lowell and Holmes's poems.

3. Give two different phrases each implying that Noyes and Weeks own the *same* mine. How would you show that they own *different* mines?

218. To express the idea of possession it is often better to use a *prepositional phrase* than to use the possessive sign. In this way we may avoid awkward forms or the unpleasant repetition of hissing sounds. Thus :—

"In the reign of Napoleon the Third" is better than
 "In Napoleon the Third's reign"; and
 "The houses of my father's partner" sounds better than
 "My father's partner's houses." So, instead of
 "Socrates's sayings" we may say—
 "The sayings of Socrates." Hence—

219. RULE II.—*Avoid harsh or awkward expressions by using a prepositional phrase instead of a possessive.*

EXERCISE 168.

Improve the following sentences according to Rule II:—

1. What is the first governor of Rhode Island's name?
2. Did you hear the senator from New York's speech?
3. The conductor of the freight train's excuse was insufficient.
4. Remember my wife's sister's invitation.
5. What is your college chum's father's business?
6. Harper's Magazine's circulation is immense.
7. Where are the architect of the post-office's designs.
8. The Adamses' administrations covered eight years.
9. This is Dr. Smith's the eminent surgeon's opinion.

EXERCISE 169.

Point out the errors in the use of the possessive, and give the rule violated.

1. Barnes' History; mens' clothing; a boys' kite.
2. Lady's maids. Childrens' playthings. Everybodies' business.
3. Where is Smith's and Jones's store?
4. This is the administrator of the estate's office.
5. The January *St. Nicholas's* illustrations are admirable.
6. Scott and Abbott's estimate of Napoleon differ greatly.
7. Do you prefer Smith or Kitto's Bible Dictionary?
8. What do you think of the captain of the Dauntless's skill.
9. Which is larger, the Mayflower or the Genesta's jib?
10. This is Dr. Hill, the professor of rhetoric's, opinion.

220. A possessive noun does the work of a phrase or of an *adjective*, and, like an adjective, may be used without the noun it modifies. [See § 301.] Thus:—

This poem is Longfellow's.

6. NOUNS AS APPOSITIVES.

221. A Noun may be used as an **Appositive** to explain another noun or a pronoun. Thus:—

Homer, the famous Greek poet, was blind.

The poem was dedicated to *him*, the author's early friend.

(a) An appositive is sometimes connected by *or* or *as* with the word that it modifies. Thus:—

The llama, *or* South American camel, is found among the Andes.

John B. Gough, *as* a temperance lecturer, had no equal.

EXERCISE 170.

1. Point out the **appositives** in Exercise 128, and tell what each modifies.

2. Use these words in sentences either as *appositives* or as *modified by appositives*:—

De Soto; telephone; simooms; Eli Whitney; bicycles; the equator; Franklin; Sumner; satellite; Morse; Niagara Falls; Miss Alcott.

7. NOUNS AS INDIRECT OBJECT.

222. A Noun may be used as the **Indirect Object** of a verb. Thus:—

We have *sent* the superintendent an invitation.

EXERCISE 171.

1. Mention the **object** of each verb, and tell *to whom* or *for whom* something was done.

1. They gave a whip to the driver. 2. He paid a hundred dollars to physicians. 3. I bought a horse for my brother. 4. Who painted the picture for your friend? 5. I asked questions of the teacher. 6. We made a call on the Czar. 7. They gave the driver a whip. 8. I sold the gentleman a carriage. 9. I bought my brother a horse. 10. She built the king a castle. 11. We offered the lady a glass of water. 12. Did you lend Henry this book? 13. I have written my mother a long letter. 14. He made the man a coat.

2. Read the last four sentences with the **object next to the verb** as in the first four.

3. Change the first six so as to have the **object at the end**.

223. Verbs like those in the preceding exercise often have two objects, —

(1) One showing *what* is given, bought, etc., called the *Direct Object*, because it shows what the action directly affects; and —

(2) The other showing *to whom* or *for whom* something is given, bought, etc. This is called the *Indirect Object*, because it is less closely connected with the verb.

224. When the direct object comes first, the indirect object is expressed in a prepositional phrase, introduced generally by *to* or *for*, sometimes by *of* or *on*, as in sentences 1-6, Exercise 171.

EXERCISE 172.

1. Read the following sentences, **omitting** the indirect object.

2. Mention the **direct** and the **indirect** objects.

1. He sent my sister some fine mosaics from Florence. 2. The king granted the offender a full pardon. 3. He showed his audience some rare views. 4. This land yields its owner large crops. 5. This merchant allows his customers large discounts. 6. Throw the man a rope! 7. The government granted the Pacific railroad large tracts of land. 8. He forgave the man that debt. 9. Can you teach an old dog new tricks? 10. The judge showed the culprit no mercy. 11. Do you tell me the truth? 12. Can you bring us proofs? 13. We paid the men four dollars.

3. Read the sentences, substituting a **prepositional phrase** for the indirect object.

4. Analyze the preceding sentences, treating the indirect object as a *modifier of the verb*. Thus:—

(The) king granted [the offender] <a> <full> pardon.

225. The *Indirect Object* of a transitive verb shows *to whom* or *for whom* the action is performed.

226. When a transitive verb is changed into a passive verb-phrase [§ 452], the **direct** object should be made the subject. Thus:—

They gave [me] a cordial invitation
is better changed to—

A cordial invitation was given [me],—i.e. [to me],
than to—

I was given [a cordial invitation].

EXERCISE 173.

Use the following verbs in sentences containing **direct** and **indirect** objects:—

pay; find; sell; give; toss; make; return; deliver; write; lend.

8. NOUNS USED ADVERBially.

227. A Noun may be used **Adverbially**.

EXERCISE 174.

1. What kind of **phrases** may be used like adverbs?

2. What words or phrases modify the following verbs as **adverbs** would? Tell whether they show *how much*, *how often*, *when*, and so on.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Have you been standing long? | 6. He came very recently. |
| 2. We have been waiting for hours. | 7. They went away in the night. |
| 3. You might have slept a few minutes. | 8. We met them last year. |
| 4. His burden weighs heavily. | 9. She arrived last Sunday. |
| 5. The load weighs several tons. | 10. We buy a newspaper every day. |
| 11. Did you fall far? No; I fell a few feet, then slid several rods, and rolled the rest of the way. | |
| 12. The steamer sailed due east three hundred miles the first day. | |

228. We see from the preceding sentences that not only adverbial and prepositional phrases, but also *nouns*

and *noun-phrases* may be used like *adverbs*. They may modify —

Verbs :	{ We <i>shall remain</i> a week . He <i>has travelled</i> a thousand miles . He <i>was beaten</i> several times .
Adjectives :	{ This is a pound <i>heavier</i> . It is <i>worth</i> ninety cents . My ladder is ten feet <i>long</i> .
Adverbs :	{ You might write a great deal <i>better</i> . We shall walk a mile <i>further</i> . A minute <i>later</i> all was lost. Where shall we be a hundred years <i>hence</i> ?

229. Nouns used adverbially may denote time, place, or manner, — showing when, where, or how; but they generally denote **measure**, showing *how much*, *how far*, etc.

EXERCISE 175.

1. Select the nouns used **adverbially**; tell what they modify, and whether they denote **measure**, **time**, **place**, or **manner**.

1. The sun sets fifty minutes later. 2. The moon rises an hour earlier. 3. They perished ages ago. 4. What is that coming this way? 5. A few years ago men were a month travelling a thousand miles. 6. Cowards die many times before their deaths. 7. A piece two inches wide and four feet long weighs three pounds and is worth one dollar. 8. He has crossed the ocean twenty times a year. 9. I walked the floor all night long. 10. Emperor William was ninety years old last Tuesday.

2. **Analyze** the preceding sentences orally or in writing.

9. NOUNS USED INDEPENDENTLY.

230. A Noun may be used **Independently** in a sentence, —

1. *In calling to or addressing* some person or thing; as, —

Bring us some lilies, **Mary**.

Gentlemen, have you agreed upon a verdict?

We say of such nouns that they are used "*independently in address*." They are therefore sometimes called *vocatives*.

2. *In calling attention* to something not addressed; as, —

The **wind**, the **wind**! hear how it roars!

Alas! poor **creature**! how she must have suffered!

We say of such nouns that they are used "*independently in exclamation*."

(a) A noun used in either of these ways stands by itself as a separate part of the sentence, not being connected with it as the other parts are.

EXERCISE 176.

Select the nouns that are used independently, and tell whether they are used *in address* or *in exclamation*.

1. "Drink, pretty creature, drink." 2. Give me of your balm, O fir tree! 3. "What a fall was there, my countrymen." 4. "Soldiers, here you must either conquer or die." 5. "Our country! it is not the East with its broad-armed ports." 6. "Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll!" 7. Mr. President, my object is peace. 8. The Pilgrim fathers! where are they? 9. The flag of the free! O long may it wave! 10. "Permit me, sir, to add another circumstance." 11. "Youth!" he said, "I forgive thee."

12. "My country! 'tis of thee,
Sweet land of liberty,
Of thee I sing."

10. NOUNS USED WITH PARTICIPLES.

231. A Noun may be used with a participle that modifies it [§ 587] to make an adverbial phrase showing the *time* or *cause* of what is predicated. Thus: —

Our commander being slain, we retreated. [Showing what caused the retreat.]

My suspicions having been aroused, I began to watch him. [Showing why or when I watched him.]

232. A noun used in this way is sometimes said to be used "absolutely." The entire phrase, however, is used as a substitute for an adverbial clause [§ 495], and really modifies the verb of the accompanying assertion. The examples given above mean —

We retreated because our commander was slain.

I began to watch him since my suspicions were aroused.

EXERCISE 177.

Tell **how each verb is modified**, and explain the **use of the italicized nouns**.

1. His *supplies* having been exhausted, the general capitulated.
2. We returned home, our *work* being finished.
3. The *jury* having been sworn, the trial proceeded.
4. The *river* being impassable, no attempt was made to cross it.
5. His *trials* (being) ended, he rests in peace.

11. NOUNS AS OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT.

233. A Noun [or an adjective] may be used as the **Objective Complement** of a transitive verb. Thus:—

Age makes a man feeble.

Elizabeth made Raleigh a knight.

Ice keeps water cool.

Call your dog Bruno.

EXERCISE 178.

1. (a) What is a **complement**? (b) What is the complement of a transitive verb called? (c) What is a **subjective complement**? (d) What is completed by a subjective complement? (e) To what does it always refer?

2. (a) Read the examples in § 233, omitting the last word. How does the omission affect the meaning? (b) What is the **object** of each verb? (c) To what are the adjectives added?

234. In "Age **makes** a man **feeble**" the verb **makes** alone does not express the action performed on a man, for we need the adjective **feeble** to show what quality is produced in him. We mean not "Age **makes** a man," but "Age **makes-feeble**, or enfeebles, a man."

So, too, the meaning of **made** in the second sentence is *completed* by the noun **knight**, which shows that knighthood was conferred upon Raleigh,—as if we had said "Elizabeth **made-knight**, or knighted, Raleigh."

235. Words used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb, and at the same time to add some name or quality to the object of it, are called **Objective Complements**,—"objective" because they refer to the object, and "complements" because they complete the predicate.

EXERCISE 179.

Select the **objective complements**, and tell how each is used. In making the analysis, underline the objective complement to show its connection with the verb, and inclose it in angles as a modifier of the object. Thus:—

(The) snow paints (the) fields (white).

1. Fear made the soldiers pale. 2. We shall tint our walls green.
3. The people made Lincoln president. 4. Time makes the worst enemies friends. 5. The warm weather has made the ice thin. 6. The Turks call their ruler Sultan. 7. The people called Paul, Jupiter.
8. The president has appointed Mr. Clark postmaster. 9. Get the horses ready immediately. 10. The club has chosen Roy captain.
11. We have appointed Henry Wise our agent. 12. Lincoln set the slaves free. 13. The merchant sold his stock short.

236. A word used as the complement of a transitive verb and referring to the object of it is called an *Objective Complement*.

EXERCISE 180.

1. Use these verbs in sentences with **objective complements**:—

Struck; make; named; appoint; elect; swept; called; dyed; chose; colored.

2. What is it to **analyze** a sentence? How do you analyze a phrase?

Parsing.

237. We analyze a sentence by separating it into its *elements*,—words, phrases, or clauses,—and showing how each one is connected with some other; if we then analyze each phrase and clause, we show how *every word* is used.

But we need to be perfectly familiar with the *forms* and *classes* of words as well as with their use. To do this we must examine each word by itself, and follow some system in telling what is *grammatically important* about it. This is called **parsing** the word.

238. To *parse* a word is to tell what is of grammatical importance about it.

239. We should **analyze** a sentence before we parse the words in it, for the forms and classification of words depend upon their *use*, and this we discover through our analysis.

240. We should parse the words of a sentence in the following order:—

- I. **The Base** (subject, verb, complement).
- II. **The Modifiers of the Base.**
- III. **The Secondary Modifiers**, etc.
- IV. **The Connective Words.**

241. In parsing¹ a word we should tell —

¹ *To the Teacher.*—While children are learning to parse, they should give all the facts they can about a word, with the reasons. As they progress, they may substitute briefer forms, and give only the more important facts.

1. The **part of speech** to which it belongs.
2. In what subdivision of that part of speech it is found; that is, **what kind** of noun, verb, adjective, etc., it is.
3. Its **grammatical form**, — number, case, tense, etc.
4. Its **use or construction**, or what it has to do with some other word.

242. How to Parse a Noun. The following forms may be used in parsing nouns:—

Alexander II. gave [the Russian serfs] (their) freedom [not many years ago].

Alexander II. is a *noun*, because it is a name; *proper*, because it is a special name meant for one person only; *singular*, because it denotes but one; *used* as the subject of the verb **gave**, for it represents the person about whom the assertion is made.

freedom is a noun; *abstract*, for it names [a quality or] a condition; *singular*; *used* as the *object* of the verb **gave**, for it shows *what* was given.

serfs is a *common* noun, because it is a name for any or all of a certain kind; *plural*, because it denotes more than one; *used* as the *indirect object* of **gave**, for it shows *to whom* freedom was given.

years is a *common* noun; *plural*; *used adverbially* to modify **ago**; it shows *how long* ago the event happened.

243. The following **briefier form** may be followed:—

Alexander II. is a singular proper noun; subject of the verb **gave**.

freedom is a singular abstract noun; object of the verb **gave**.

serfs is a plural common noun; indirect object of the verb **gave**.

years is a plural common noun; *used adverbially* to modify **ago**.

244. In written parsing, **abbreviate** by using initial letters. Thus:—

Alexander II. = spN.; S. of V. **gave**.

freedom = saN.; O. of V. **gave**.

serfs = pcN.; IO. of V. **gave**.

years = pcN.; *used Advly* to modify **ago**.

[For abbreviations, see page 96.]

EXERCISE 181.

1. **Analyze** the following sentences, and **parse** the nouns :—

1. Accent and emphasis are the pith of reading; punctuation is but secondary. 2. The maize-field grew and ripened, and it stood in all the splendor of its garments green and yellow. 3. We may cover a multitude of sins with the white robe of charity. 4. I was born an American; I live an American; I shall die an American. 5. How cunningly Nature hides every wrinkle of her inconceivable antiquity under roses and violets and morning dew. 6. Frequent the company of your betters. 7. Congenial autumn comes, the Sabbath of the year. 8. It is the tint of autumn, a mighty flower-garland, blossoming under the spell of the enchanter Frost. 9. Five times outlawed had he been by England's king and Scotland's queen. 10. One morn a peri at the gate of Eden stood disconsolate.

2. **Parse** the nouns on pages 8-10, Part I.

D. DERIVATION.

245. Let us see how names for so many different ideas have originated. Some of our words are very old; but as people have always been finding new things that needed names, and having new thoughts that they wished to express, they have made many new words.

246. Those words that have been made or derived from older ones by additions or other changes are called **Derivatives**, — whether they belong to one part of speech or another.

Nouns have been made in various ways.

247. Derivative Nouns. From *other nouns* are formed

(a) **Diminutives**, to signify a thing of the same kind that is small or young; as, —

duck, *duckling*; lamb, *lambkin*; wave, *wavelet*; goose, *gosling*; hill, *hillock*.

(b) Feminine nouns; as, —count, *countess*; testator, *testatrix*; hero, *heroine*.**(c) Abstract nouns, to signify qualities, conditions, etc.; as, —**

slave,	king,	friend,	child,	patron,	patriot,
slavery,	kingdom,	friendship,	childhood,	patronage,	patriotism.

(d) Nouns that mean one who has to do with something; as, —

garden,	senate,	law,	finance,	cloth,	science,	music,	team,
gardener,	senator,	lawyer,	financier,	clothier,	scientist,	musician,	teamster.

(e) Nouns that mean the opposite to something; as, —order, *disorder*; truth, *untruth*; sense, *nonsense*; ability, *inability*.

248. What is put *before* a word to make a derivative is called a **prefix**; as, *in-, un-, dis-, non-*.

What is put *after* a word to make a derivative is called a **suffix**; as, *-ling, -ship, -ess, -er*.

EXERCISE 182.

1. Define each of these words, using in your definition the word from which it is derived; i.e., the *primitive* word.

Manikin; leaflet; ringlet; lordling; bullock; governess; goddess; countess; duchess; prophetess; mistrust; dukedom; manhood; scholarship; heroism; missionary; songster; charioteer; physician; violinist; disobedience; inattention; imprudence; displeasure; non-resistance.

2. What are the **diminutives** of these words:—

leaf; river; isle; lock; cat; stream; globe; dear.

249. From *adjectives* are formed many **abstract** nouns that name the quality implied in the adjective; as, —

hard,	kind,	safe,	wide,	false,	wise,	pure,
hardship,	kindness,	safety,	width,	falsehood,	wisdom,	purity.

250. From *verbs* are formed —**(a)** Nouns denoting the **actor** or **doer**; as, —sing, *singer*; collect, *collector*; beg, *beggar*.**(b)** Nouns denoting the **act** or **what is done**; as, —learn, *learning*; swim, *swimming*; paint, *paintings*.

EXERCISE 183.

Form as many nouns as you can from each of these verbs and adjectives, and **use** each noun in a sentence:—

Write; break; drive; give; pass; swear; begin; catch; fight; know; spin; think; bright; long; civil; brave; honest; free.

251. Besides derivatives there are many words made by combining two or more older words. Such are called **Compounds**.

252. Compound Nouns are generally noun-phrases condensed into a single word, thus:—

Sharp-shooter; stronghold; nothing; fisherman; beeswax; sun-stroke; star-fish; by-word; drawbridge; block-head; etc.

EXERCISE 184.

Tell of what these words are compounded, and try to explain how the principal noun is modified:—

Wildfire; anybody; ill-will; blank-book; apple-tree; she-bear; sailor-boy; merchant-tailor; king's-evil; jew's-harp; solomon's-seal; ratsbane; book-keeping; sea-shore; rain-bow; glass-house; outlook; after-thought; under-brush; instep; pop-corn; blow-pipe; spelling-book; fishing-pole.

E. WHAT MAY BE USED AS A NOUN.

253. Other parts of speech are sometimes used as nouns without being changed at all.

254. Some words that were at first only **Adjectives** are now used also as nouns, often with both singular and plural forms; as,—

A great **wrong**. The **rights** of women. His **equals**. Your **bettors**. My **goods** were burned. The **ills** of life. The **blacks** outnumber the **whites**.

255. A **proper adjective** is often used to denote the *person* or the *language* that would be described by it. Thus:—

The **Italians** speak **Italian**.

256. (a) Most adjectives, without taking a plural form, may be used as nouns to mean *the persons who are so and so*. Thus:—

The **rich** and the **poor** meet together. The **foolish** may ape the **wise**. Respect the **old**. Educate the **young**. The **best** are not perfect.

(b) Some are used to mean *that which is so and so*; as,—

Stand by the **right** through **thick** and **thin**. Hold fast to the **good**. Deliver us from **evil**. The **past** is the guide to the **future**. Do you buy the **best** or the **cheapest**? For **better** or for **worse**. The **cold** was intense.

257. Sometimes a noun is easily supplied; as,—

The left (side) of the stage. Through the thick (part) of his thumb.

EXERCISE 185.

1. Select the **adjectives used as nouns**, and explain what is meant by each one.

1. The American commander had come. 2. We met the Americans. 3. He meant the German language. 4. We shall speak German. 5. Intemperance is a great evil. 6. Evil habits ruin us. 7. The poor may become rich, and the weak, strong. 8. Beautiful things call for admiration. 9. We admire the beautiful. 10. Do you know the right from the left? 11. The dead were buried, and the wounded removed. 12. Separate the good from the bad. 13. The long and short of it.

2. Use these words first as **adjectives**, and then as **nouns**:—

Wise; Indian; proud; studious; ignorant; Portuguese; upper; humble; deep; Methodist; living; hungry; idle; new; rough.

258. **Adverbs** also become nouns when they are nouns in meaning. Thus.~

Now [i.e. the present] is the best time. You must come before **then** [that time].

EXERCISE 186.

What words, commonly adverbs, are here **nouns** : —

1. It seems a long while. 2. For once you are right. 3. Do not say when if you mean where. 4. Try to understand the why and the wherefore. 5. It is a yard from here to there.

259. Those forms of a **Verb** that are called **infinitives** (§§ 407 and 553) are the names of some action, and are really verbal nouns, as we see from their use. Thus : —

The baby has learned **to walk**. For exercise, try **walking** slowly. **Walking** is good exercise.

260. A **Clause** may be used as a noun ; thus, in sentences like —

What you say is true ;

We knew that he would make trouble ;

the subject of “is” and the object of “knew” are not ordinary nouns, but are *clauses* used like nouns. [See §§ 282 and 538.]

261. A **Phrase** may be used as a noun ; thus, in the sentence —

Up the Nile is a book of travels,

the phrase *Up the Nile*, being the name of the book, does exactly what a simple noun would do.

So, when we mention a word or a letter or a figure, as in —

The l is silent in **almond**.

Among is a preposition.

The word **erase** means **rub out**.

Do not say **how** for **what**.

&c. is a form of **etc.**

J is shaped like a hook.

we use the words, **among**, **erase**, etc., not to connect or to assert, but only as their own names.

262. We see, then, that any *letter*, or *sign*, or *word*, or *group of words* may be used as a name of something.

263. To sum up : Whatever we think of and wish to mention we must represent by some spoken or written sign used as the name of it, and called a **Noun**. Some of

these expressions are always nouns, and some are only occasionally nouns.

EXERCISE 187.

Mention every expression that is used in these sentences as a noun, and explain what it is:—

1. In English words *q* is always followed by *u*. 2. *Facetiously* contains all the vowels in alphabetical order. 3. This poor fellow knew all the ups and downs of life. 4. The Antiques and Horribles paraded in the morning. 5. His bark is worse than his bite. 6. Answer without any ifs or buts. 7. What is meant by the editorial "we"? 8. "By the street of By-and-by we reach the house of Never." 9. Touch-me-nots and jack-in-the-pulpits grow on my grounds. 10. "When rang his proud hurrah, and the red field was won." 11. "I forgot" is a flimsy excuse. 12. Do you know why the birds sing? 13. Who wrote "Around the World in the Yacht *Sunbeam*"? 14. The Scandinavians are learning to speak English. 15. "Kind words do not wear out the tongue" is a Danish proverb. 16. To relieve the wretched was his pride.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. What is the meaning of the word *noun*? 2. What is the difference between a common and a proper noun? 3. Which has the more of real meaning? 4. When do common nouns begin with capitals? 5. Name four classes of common nouns. 6. What is a collective noun? 7. What is an abstract noun? 8. Classify these nouns: *rye, folly, hero, corps, men*. 9. Give two rules for making nouns plural. 10. Write the plural of *life, motto, grotto, larch, talisman, yeoman, d, genius, die, father-in-law, spoonful, alley, ally*. 11. What is the number of *alms, news, optics, deer, salmon, tongs, measles*? 12. How do you pluralize a name with the title Mr., Dr., or Miss? 13. What is the rule for forming the possessive case? 14. What besides ownership may the possessive case show?

15. How many uses has the noun? 16. Name them. 17. Which is the most common? 18. What does the indirect object show? 19. What is an objective complement? 20. What is the difference between an objective complement and a subjective complement?

21. How is joint ownership of the same thing shown? 22. Give an example. 23. How would you indicate separate ownership of different things? 24. What substitute for the possessive may be used? 25. Write sentences using the noun *hour* in eight different constructions.

264. About **Nouns** we have learned to distinguish the following:—

Kinds	{	Common	(<i>c</i>)	{	Collective	(<i>col</i>)
		Proper	(p)		Abstract	(<i>a</i>)
					Material	(<i>m</i>)
					Gender	(<i>g</i>)

Forms { Singular (*s*) { (Common) (*com*)
 { Plural (*p*) { Possessive (*pos*)

1. Subject of the verb —.	S. of V.
2. Subjective complement of the verb —.	SC. of V.
3. Object of the <i>verb</i> —.	O. of V.
4. Object of the <i>preposition</i> —.	O. of P.
5. Possessive form modifying the noun —.	PF.
6. An Appositive explaining the noun (or pronoun) —.	A.
7. Indirect object of the verb —.	IO. of V.
8. Used adverbially to { verb —. modify the { adjective —. { adverb —. }	Advly.
9. Used independently in address (or exclamation).	I. in A. (or E.).
10. Used with the participle — to make an adverbial modifier of the verb —.	with P.
11. Objective complement of the verb —, referring to the object —.	OC. of V.

CHAPTER VIII.

PRONOUNS.

265. We know that a noun, as "horse," is a word that represents only things of a certain kind, which it describes. A pronoun, as "that," is a word that *may represent any thing* without describing it.

Although the pronouns are few in number, they are divided into several classes, and the most of them have much to do besides merely taking the place of nouns. [See § 53.]

A. KINDS.

1. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

EXERCISE 188.

1. Which of the following pronouns refer to the person speaking?

2. Which refer to the person spoken to?

3. Which to the person or thing spoken of?

1. Did *you* bring *me* a letter?
2. *Your* father sent *it* to *my* care.
3. *I* asked *him* for *his* address.
4. *He* wanted *yours* and *mine*.
5. Does *your* sister know *them*?
6. *We* must inform *our* friends.
7. *They* will forget *us*.

8. *She* knows *their* plans.
9. Tell *her* what *ours* are.
10. *Hers* depend on *theirs*.
11. Know *ye* *its* meaning?
12. *He* telleth *thee* that *thou* mayst keep for *thy* share only what is *thine* own.

4. If only one person is speaking, to whom must the pronouns *we*, *our*, *ours*, and *us* refer?

5. Do any of the preceding pronouns show *what kind* of person is meant,— as a noun would?

266. Pronouns that of themselves show whether we mean the person speaking, the person spoken to, or some person or thing spoken of, are called **Personal** pronouns.

267. (1) Pronouns of the **first person** always represent *the speaker*, either alone or with others.

They are **I** and its variations, — *my, me; we, our, us*, etc.

(2) Pronouns of the **second person** always stand for *the person or persons spoken to*.

They are **thou** and its variations, — *thy, thee; ye, you, your*, etc.

(3) Pronouns of the **third person** generally refer to *what has been spoken of*.

They are **he, she, it**, and their variations, — *his, him; her; its; they, their, them*, etc. Any pronoun not referring to the speaker or to the person addressed is of the third person *in meaning*.

EXERCISE 189.

1. Select the personal pronouns in Exercises 43 and 45, and tell whether they are of the *first*, the *second*, or the *third* person.

2. Collect the pronouns from Exercise 188 into **three lists** according to their person. To which can “-self” or “-selves” be added?

268. *Myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself*, and their plurals, are called **Compound personal** pronouns.

269. A **Personal** pronoun is one that is always of the same grammatical person.

2. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

EXERCISE 190.

1. Of what kind are the following sentences? **2.** For what does **who** stand? **which**? **what**? **3.** To what part of speech do these words belong? **4.** For what purpose are they used? **5.** What kind of sentence is made by putting the answers in place of the pronouns?

1. **Who** discovered the Mississippi?—De Soto. By whom was the St. Lawrence discovered?—Cartier. **Whose** discovery was made first?—Cartier's.

2. **Which** is the longer of the two rivers?—The Mississippi.

3. **What** is the meaning of "Mississippi"?—"Father of Waters."

270. An *Interrogative* pronoun is one used to ask a question.

The three interrogative pronouns are **who**, **which**, and **what**. The last two are sometimes used as adjectives. [§ 332.]

271. The word for which an interrogative pronoun stands is unknown until it appears in the answer to the question.

3. CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

I. Clauses as Modifiers. — Adjective Clauses.

EXERCISE 191.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. ragged children | 1. very hot days |
| 2. children in rags | 2. days of intense heat |
| 3. children who wear rags | 3. days which were very hot |
| 1. trustworthy boys | |
| 2. boys worthy of trust | |
| 3. boys that may be trusted | |

1. From the first two expressions in each group explain the difference between adjectives and adjective phrases. 2. In the sentences numbered 3, read the descriptive expressions. 3. To what part of speech do **wear**, **were**, and **may** belong? 4. Mention the subjects, objects, or complements. 5. What does **that** stand for? 6. What does **which** refer to? 7. To what does **who** relate? 8. To what part of speech do these words belong?

272. From the examples in Exercise 191 we see that a noun may be modified not only by an *adjective word* or an *adjective phrase*, but also by a *clause*, or group of words that contains a subject and a predicate.

Thus in the sentence,—

Regions that have no vegetation are called deserts,
the expression **that have no vegetation** is used like an *adjective* to show which regions are meant,—as if we had said “regions *without vegetation*” or “barren regions.”

273. A *Clause* is a union of subject and predicate used like some part of speech.

274. An *Adjective clause* is a clause used as an adjective.

EXERCISE 192.

1. Select the **adjective clauses**, and tell what each one modifies or describes.

1. I have read the book **which you lent me**. 2. The story **that it tells** is interesting. 3. The author, **who is a woman**, lives in Texas. 4. Help those **that are weak**. 5. Invite the gentleman *of whom you spoke*. 6. He gave all **that he had**. 7. Those **that are rich** should help those **that are poor**. 8. A man **who cannot govern himself** is a slave. 9. Our journey, **which was very tiresome**, ended at last. 10. The friends **whom we visited** have come. 11. Remember those **whose hearts are sad**. 12. Read such books **as will be helpful**.

2. By what words are the clauses joined to the words to which they relate?

275. In the last exercise we see that each clause is *connected* to the word to which it relates by what we call a **Conjunctive** or a “relative” pronoun denoting the same person or thing.

276. The word for which a pronoun stands is called the **Antecedent**, because it generally “goes before” the pronoun.

277. When its antecedent is expressed, a conjunctive pronoun may be called a *relative* pronoun.

278. The four relative pronouns are **who, which, that,** and **as**.

Who (**whose, whom**) represents *persons* only, **which** represents *anything but persons*, and **that** and **as** represent *either*.

(a) As **which** and **that** have no possessive form, **whose** is frequently used to represent something besides persons. It is generally better, however, to use *of which* instead.

(b) When **as** is a relative pronoun, it follows *many, such, or same*; as in, "I give thee **such as** I have"; "As **many as** wish may go"; "Mine is the same **as** yours (is)."

EXERCISE 193.

1. Select the **relative pronouns** in Exercise 192, and point out the **antecedent** of each.

2. Which of the relative pronouns would you use to represent each of the following words:—

Book; city; cousin; horse; flowers; soldiers; rivers; kings; tea; winter; Bismarck; tribes; armies; conquerors.

3. Write sentences containing the preceding words **modified by adjective clauses**.

II. Clauses as Part of the Base: Noun-Clauses.

EXERCISE 194.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. { <i>Poor people</i> may need help. | 3. { I saw <i>the things which</i> he gave. |
| { <i>The poor</i> may need help. | { I saw what he gave. |
| 2. { Cloth is <i>the stuff that</i> he sells. | 4. { <i>That which</i> you tell is true. |
| { Cloth is what he sells. | { What you tell is true. |

1. Read the expressions that are alike in meaning, but different in form. 2. Compare the subjects in the first pair of sentences, and show how the second subject is made from the first. 3. Find the adjective clauses, and tell what each modifies. 4. Do the antecedents *stuff, things, that*, add much to the meaning? Give your reason. 5. Read

the sentences in which there are no antecedents. 6. Why is not an antecedent expressed? 7. What pronoun is used in the clause when the antecedent is omitted? 8. What name would you give to a clause used like a noun?

279. We know that an *adjective* may be used without its noun when the meaning is perfectly clear; as in, "The **ignorant** should be taught."

From the preceding exercise we learn that an *adjective clause* may also be used without the modified word, when the meaning of that word would be indefinite. Used alone in this way it becomes a **Noun-clause**. Thus in—

I saw { *that* or } which he brought,
 { *the thing* }

the word *that* or *thing* has of itself so little meaning that we may as well omit it; for it will convey the whole idea to say—

I saw **what** he brought.

So, too, the sentence "Employ **whoever** applies," is equivalent to "Employ **anyone who** applies."

280. In noun-clauses we generally use **what**, **whoever**, **whichever**, etc., for the connecting or **conjunctive** pronouns. But we do not call them "relative," for they only *imply* another pronoun or a noun which is really the omitted antecedent.¹

281. Noun-clauses may be subjects, objects, or subjective complements, etc., like the antecedents which they replace. [§ 595.]

EXERCISE 195.

1. In these sentences **explain the use** of the italicized words and clauses:—

1. I saw his *gifts*. I saw *what he gave*. 2. Milk was her only *sustenance*. Milk was *what sustained her*. 3. I hear your *remarks*. I

¹ "What" formerly followed an antecedent; as in, "He gave me that what I have."

hear *what you say*. 4. You tell the *truth*. You tell *what is true*. 5. Your *work* is excellent. *What you do* is excellent. 6. *Idlers* will fail. *Whoever is idle* will fail. 7. He will sell all his *possessions*. He will sell *whatever he owns*. 8. Take your *choice*. Take *whichever you choose*. 9. He will fulfil his *promise*. He will do *whatever he promises*. 10. Think about your *lessons*. Think about *what you study*. 11. *Whoever confesses* will be forgiven. 12. *Whatsoever you ask* shall be done. 13. *Whosoever will* may come. 14. *Who steals my purse* steals trash.

2. Read each sentence with the noun-clause changed to a noun or a pronoun modified by an adjective clause.

282. A *Noun-clause* is a clause having the use of a noun.

283. A *Conjunctive* pronoun is one that connects a clause to the rest of the sentence.

284. (a) The conjunctive pronouns *what*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *who*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, and *whichever* are used in noun-clauses.

(b) The interrogative pronouns are also used in noun-clauses as connectives when a question is repeated indirectly as part of the reply to it. Thus: "Who wrote the book?"—I do not know "*who wrote the book*." "*Who did it*" is a secret. Ask again "*which he took*." I will not tell "*what it is*."

EXERCISE 196.

1. **Classify the clauses** in these sentences, and tell how each is used:—

1. He remembers *what he learns*.
2. Have you ascertained *who wrote the letter*?
3. Man can do *what man has done*.
4. The fur *which warms a monarch* warmed a bear.
5. Reputation is *what we seem*, but character is *what we are*.
6. Beauty is the mark that God sets on virtue.
7. We shall never know who wrote the book.
8. Whoever trusts him makes a mistake.

9. Whatever he does shall prosper.

10. The man who feels truly noble will become so.

2. Point out the **conjunctive pronouns**, and tell which relate to an antecedent definitely expressed. Which two are interrogative?

4. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

EXERCISE 197.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>All</i> men are mortal. | 1. <i>All</i> have faded. |
| 2. <i>Both</i> stories are false. | 2. <i>Both</i> were wrecked. |
| 3. <i>Each</i> hour is precious. | 3. <i>Each</i> shall be rewarded. |
| 4. <i>Many</i> books are worthless. | 4. <i>Many</i> were orphans. |
| 5. <i>Much</i> time is wasted. | 5. <i>Much</i> remains to be used. |
| 6. <i>One</i> man's meat is <i>another</i> man's
poison. | 6. <i>One</i> was taken, and <i>another</i> was
left. |
| 7. <i>That</i> clock is too slow. | 7. <i>That</i> was more expensive. |

1. Compare the italicized words in the two columns; tell which are adjectives, and give your reason. 2. Do they describe, or only limit? 3. What does each one limit? 4. What noun may each of the italicized words in the second column have been used to represent?

285. In the last exercise we see words that are sometimes used as adjectives to limit the application of a noun, and sometimes as **Adjective pronouns** to replace that noun. Thus, in the sentence, —

One can do only **one** thing at a time,

the second **one** is a limiting *adjective* (§ 331), modifying "thing"; but the first **one**, having no noun expressed, is an adjective used as a pronoun.

EXERCISE 198.

Select the **adjective pronouns**, and tell the noun for which each is used.

1. Few shall part where many meet. 2. All that breathe will share thy destiny. 3. None are so deaf as those who will not hear. 4. This was the bravest warrior that ever buckled sword. 5. She had no for-

tune, and I had none; but that of my father was ample. 6. Some are happy, whereas others are miserable. 7. One ought to rely on one's self. 8. Such as I have, give I unto thee. 9. Both went to the war, but neither returned. 10. Both of these are good, and I will take either. 11. An hour or so had passed.

286. The principal words used as adjective pronouns are:—

All, another, any, both, each, either, few, former, latter, many, more, most, much, neither, none, one, other, own, same, several, some, such, this, that, these, those.

Some of these words often have enough of descriptive meaning to be called nouns.

287. *Each, either, and neither* are called **distributives**, because they refer to a number of objects taken separately.

This, that, these, and those are called **demonstratives** when they point out objects definitely. *He, she, they*, etc., have a similar use in such sentences as "He that would thrive must rise at five."

288. An *Adjective* pronoun is a limiting adjective used without its noun.

EXERCISE 199.

Say to what class each pronoun belongs, and give your reason. Thus:—

"I" is a *personal* pronoun, for it always represents the speaker. "What" is a *conjunctive* pronoun, for it connects a clause to the rest of the sentence.

1. It is I. 2. We are frail. 3. You and he are strong. 4. Few are stronger. 5. Who knocks? 6. To whom shall they go? 7. Is this the house which he built? 8. Which are they? 9. Did you call us? 10. That on the hill is his. 11. Which is yours? 12. Thou art she whom he calls. 13. Bring what he wants. 14. What is his name? 15. I cannot tell what his name is. 16. I that speak unto you am he. 17. Many are called, but few are chosen. 18. I have none to go with me. 19. We respect those that respect themselves. 20. We often deceive ourselves while trying to deceive others. 21. God

helps those that help themselves. 22. How poor are they who have no patience. 23. Who is he that calls us traitors? 24. Such as I have give I unto thee.

B. INFLECTION: CHANGES OF FORM.

1. NUMBER.

289. Fourteen pronouns have, like nouns, **two number-forms**. They are:—

- (1) The five personal pronouns: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{SING. } I; \text{ } \overbrace{\text{thou}; \text{ } \text{he, she, it.}} \\ \text{PLURAL. } \text{we}; \text{ } \overbrace{\text{ye, you}; \text{ } \text{they.}} \end{array} \right.$

- (2) The five compound personal pronouns:

SING. *myself; thyself, yourself; himself, herself, itself.*
 PLURAL. *ourselves; yourselves; themselves.*

- (3) Four adjective pronouns: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{SING. } \text{this}; \text{ } \text{that}; \text{ } \text{one}; \text{ } \text{other.} \\ \text{PLURAL. } \text{these}; \text{ } \text{those}; \text{ } \text{ones}; \text{ } \text{others.} \end{array} \right.$

290. All other pronouns have but **one form**, which is used either with a singular or with a plural meaning.

(a) *Another, each, either, neither* are **always singular** in meaning; and *both, few, many, several* are **always plural** in meaning.

EXERCISE 200.

1. Tell whether these pronouns have a **singular** or a **plural** meaning:—

This; we; you; few; she; them; who; myself; both; us; they; each; these; such; which; he; that; many; ourselves; either; whoever; themselves; several; all; those; who; it; any; some; another; neither.

2. Give the **other number-form** of such of the preceding pronouns as have two forms.

2. CASE.

EXERCISE 201.

1. I left **my** trunk behind **me**.
2. **Thou** art the Creator, and **thy** works praise **thee**.
3. **He** sent **his** army on before **him**.
4. **They** obey **their** parents, and honor **them**.

1. Whom do the pronouns in the first sentence represent? 2. Give the use of each one. 3. How does the form change with the use? 4. In No. 2 mention the pronoun used as subject; as possessive; as object. 5. Do they represent the same person? 6. Why do they differ in form? 7. In Nos. 3 and 4 how are the forms of the pronouns changed? 8. How do you account for these changes?

291. We see from the preceding exercise that besides a possessive form some pronouns have still another special form, which is required whenever they are used as *objects*.

Thus, besides **who**, we have the possessive form **whose**, and the object, or *objective* form **whom**, which is used when the pronoun is the object of a verb or of a preposition; as in, —

Whom did you mention? For **whom** is it?

292. Eight pronouns, —

I, thou, he, she, it, who, whoever, whosoever,

have three case-forms or cases : —

- (1) The **possessive**, to show ownership;
- (2) The **objective**, required when the pronoun is used as an object; and —
- (3) The **subjective** or **nominative** form for all other uses.

"Nominative" means merely *naming*.

293. *Cases* are the different forms of nouns and pronouns required by the construction.

294. To give all the singular and plural case-forms of a pronoun is to **decline** it. Thus:—

		NOMINATIVE.	POSSESSIVE.	OBJECTIVE.
FIRST PERSON . .	<i>Singular.</i>	I	my, mine	me
	<i>Plural.</i>	we	our, ours	us
SECOND PERSON . .	<i>Singular.</i>	(thou)	(thy, thine)	(thee)
	<i>Plural.</i>	(ye) you	your, yours	you
THIRD PERSON . .	<i>Sing. Masc.</i>	he	his	him
	<i>Sing. Fem.</i>	she	her, hers	her
	<i>Sing. Neut.</i>	it	its	it
	<i>Plural.</i>	they	their, theirs	them

	NOMINATIVE.	POSSESSIVE.	OBJECTIVE.
<i>Singular or Plural</i> in meaning.	who	whose	whom
	whoever	whosoever	whomever
	whosoever	whosoever	whomsoever

(a) **Thou, thee**, etc., are now used chiefly in solemn address, or in poetry. The plural **you** commonly takes the place of **thou** and may denote *one* person only.

(b) The possessive forms of these pronouns are adjectives by use, and may be called **possessive adjectives**. [See § 138.]

EXERCISE 202.

1. Name the **case** of these pronouns. Which are plural forms?

Her; him; thine; them; who; ours; its; I; their; ye; whose; thee; whom; us; hers; thy; our; you; me; my; it.

2. Learn the ten **nominative** forms; the nine **objective** forms. Which two forms are either nominative or objective? Which one is either possessive or objective?

295. Three pronouns—**one, other, another**—like nouns, have a special form only for the possessive use. Thus:—

Singular: one, **one's**; other, **other's**; another, **another's**.

Plural: ones, **ones'**; others, **others'**.

296. Most pronouns, however, are not used as possessives, and have but a single form for all their constructions.

Either's and *neither's* are sometimes used; but the phrases of *either*, of *neither*, would be better.

3. GENDER.

297. *He*, *she*, and *it* are gender-pronouns. *He* represents a male, and is of the masculine gender; *she* represents a female, and is of the feminine gender; *it* generally represents that which has no sex, and hence is said to be of the neuter gender.

(a) *He* is often used to represent an antecedent that applies to both males and females. As in,—

Has any *person* lost *his* gloves?

(b) In sentences like "The child cries for *its* mother," "Shoot the crow if you see *it*," we use *it*, because the sex is either unknown or unimportant.

298. Personification. We sometimes speak of things as if they were persons, and use masculine or feminine pronouns in referring to them. Such objects are said to be personified. Thus: "The sun *his* ceaseless course doth run." "Nature in *her* robes of green."

C. USES, OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

299. Pronouns have all the *constructions*, or uses in sentences, that nouns have. Three or four of these uses, however, are rare; and relative and interrogative pronouns are mostly used in one of the first five ways. [See page 140.]

300. An interrogative pronoun generally precedes the verb, and there is sometimes a doubt whether it is used as subject or as subjective complement. We can always decide, however, by noticing the

construction of the word that takes its place in the expected reply. For example:—

<u>Who</u> is it?	It is your <u>mother</u> .
<u>Which</u> is mine?	The <u>small one</u> is yours.
<u>What</u> was he?	He was a <u>clergyman</u> .

Here **who** and **what** must be *subjective complements*, for so are **mother** and **clergyman**, the words they represent. For a similar reason, **which** is a *subject*.

EXERCISE 203.

Tell the use of each pronoun in these sentences:—

1. He liveth long **who** liveth well. 2. Who is it?—It is I. 3. We have found them. What is it that you have found? 4. In what did you travel? We sent to him by her for this. 5. Whose carelessness caused this? Our defeat was their victory. One's manners show one's breeding. 6. He himself hath said it. They each and all declined to go. 7. He gave one of them permission, and she told us the secret. 8. Each stepping where his comrade stood the instant *that* he fell. [§ 228.] What is it worth? 9. "O Thou who hearest prayer!" "O happy we! thus blessed." 10. This being the case, we shall not go. 11. The will makes the house yours. You may as well call it such. [§ 236.]

301. Most personal pronouns have two possessive forms,—one used like an adjective to modify a following noun, as in "**my** hand," "**your** heart,"—and the other used to take the place of a noun, as in "**mine** is here," "**this** is **yours**."

(a) **His** is used in either way; as "**his** land," "**his** was a useful life."

(b) **Mine** and **thine** are sometimes used like *my* and *thy* before a word beginning with a vowel sound; as "**mine** own," "**thine** honor."

302. The second of the possessive forms may be used in any construction, and with singular or plural meaning. Thus:—

That tongue of **hers** will make trouble.

Thine is the glory. Bring **theirs**, but leave **ours**.

"Wealth is not **his** that has it, but **his** that enjoys it."

(a) These words are much like adjective pronouns, and may be called *such*.

(b) Do not use the apostrophe in writing *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*.

303. It is frequently used as the temporary or anticipative subject of a verb, the real subject of which is a word or an expression that comes after it [§ 560]. As in, —

It is always best (to try). It is true (that health makes wealth).

304. It is sometimes used indefinitely without an antecedent. As in, —

It rains. It will freeze to-night.

Analysis of Complex Sentences.

305. A *Complex* sentence is one that contains a clause.

Sentences containing conjunctive pronouns are therefore always complex.

306. If a compound sentence contains a clause, it becomes of course a **compound complex** sentence.

307. In analyzing complex sentences the directions given on pages 94–97 may generally be followed.

In written analysis *adjective clauses* may be enclosed like other modifiers, and the use of *noun-clauses* may be shown by underlining them entire. The base of a clause may be marked by lines drawn over subject, verb, and complement.

EXAMPLES. — 1. (The past is ⟨a⟩ ⟨shadowy⟩ page {which keeps [forever] ⟨the⟩ record ⟨of our lives⟩).

1. This is a **complex assertive** sentence, [Cx A. = A; ajc.].
2. Formed of the **principal assertion** and an **adjective clause**.
3. B. of A. = *past is page*.
4. M. of S. = *aj. the*.

5. M. of SC. *page* = ajs. *a*, *shadowy*; ajc. *which keeps forever the record of our lives*.
6. B. of ajc. = *which keeps record*.
7. M. of S. *which* = _____.
8. M. of V. *keeps* = av. *forever*.
9. M. of O. *record* = aj. *the*; pph. *of our lives*.
2. Nothing is troublesome (that we do [willingly]).

NOTE. — Conjunctive pronouns used as complements always *precede* their verbs, as in the sentence above.

3. Whoever does (a) (good) deed is [instantly] ennobled.
1. This is a **complex assertive** sentence. [Cx A. = A; nc.]
2. Formed of a **principal assertion** with a **noun-clause** for its subject.
3. B. of A. = nc. *is ennobled*.
4. M. of V. *is ennobled* = av. *instantly*.
5. B. of nc. = *whoever does deed*.
6. M. of O. *deed* = ajs. *a*, *good*.
4. (The) lecturer told [us] what he had seen [during his journey].
- Cx A. = A; nc. And so on as before.

EXERCISE 204.

Analyze the following sentences:—

1. Who owned the farm that was sold? [Cx Q. = Q; ajc.]
2. Tell me what you have learned. [Cx I. = Com; nc.]
3. The gentleman who called is a physician.
4. He is a man that I esteem highly.
5. Show me those that you have finished.
6. We shall send him whatever he demands.
7. Do you know for whom the gift is meant?
8. Have you heard what caused the fire?
9. I know what you want.
10. Ask her who he is.
11. We prize that which we obtain by effort.
12. This is the book from which he read the story.
13. My lord, I know not what the matter is.
14. People almost never do anything in anger of which they do not repent.
15. He who was taught only by himself had a fool for a master.
16. Nature is loved by what is best in us.
17. There is no secret of the heart which our actions do

not disclose. 18. Reputation is what we seem, but character is what we are. [CCx A. = 2A; 2 nc.] 19. Beauty is the mark that God sets on virtue. 20. What man has done man can do. 21. Is this the sole reward for which you have done so base a deed?

308. How to Parse a Pronoun. A pronoun is parsed by giving its 1. *kind*; 2. *antecedent*; (3. *person*;) (4. *number*;) (5. *case*;) 6. *use*; and (7. *declension*).

The following forms may be used:—

1. (My) mind (to me) (a) kingdom is.

My is a *personal* pronoun; represents the speaker; *first person*; singular *number*; *possessive case*; *used* to modify the noun **mind**. It is declined:—

SING. *Nom.* I, *Pos.* my or mine, *Obj.* me;

PLU. *Nom.* we, *Pos.* our or ours, *Obj.* us.

2. Those (that waste (their) youth) lose what they can [never] regain.

Those is an *adjective* pronoun; represents “those persons”; plural *number*; *used* as subject of the verb **lose**.

That is a *relative* pronoun; *antecedent those*; *used* as the subject of the verb **waste**.

What is a *conjunctive* pronoun; antecedent omitted; *used* as the object of the verb **can regain**.

309. In written parsing initial letters [see page 158] may be used as follows:—

my = pP.; ant. *speaker*; 1st, sing., pos.; mod. N. **mind**.

those = aP.; means *those persons*; pl.; S. of V. **lose**.

that = rP.; ant. *those*; S. of V. **waste**.

what = cP.; O. of V. **can regain**.

EXERCISE 205.

1. Parse the pronouns in Exercises 199 and 204.

2. Illustrate, in sentences, seven constructions of pronouns.

310.

SUMMARY: PRONOUNS.

Kinds	{	Personal	(<i>p</i>)	Forms	{	First	(<i>1st</i>)	Person
		Conjunctive	(<i>c</i>)			Second	(<i>2d</i>)	
		Relative	(<i>r</i>)			Third	(<i>3d</i>)	
		Interrogative	(<i>i</i>)			Singular	(<i>s</i>)	Number
		Adjective	(<i>a</i>)			Plural	(<i>p</i>)	
							{	Masculine
						Feminine		(<i>f</i>)
					{	Nominative	(<i>nom</i>)	Case
						Possessive	(<i>pos</i>)	
						Objective	(<i>obj</i>)	

Constructions. [See page 140.]

Constructions. [See page 140.]

EXERCISE 206.

Analyze the following sentences, and **parse** the nouns and pronouns:—

1. He that would have the kernel must crack the shell.
2. We tire of those pleasures that we take, but never of those that we give.
3. The truly great man is he who does not lose his child-heart.
4. The tongue is the only weapon that can heal the wounds that it makes.
5. What is really best for us lies always within our reach.
6. Reputation is what men and women think of us; character is what God and the angels know of us.
7. The most precious acquisition is that of a friend.
8. How calmly may we commit ourselves to the hands of Him who bears up the world.
9. What seem to us but sad funereal tapers may be heaven's distant lamps.
10. He that would honor win must not fear dying.
11. Who speaks the truth stabs Falsehood to the heart.
12. What men call luck is the prerogative of valiant souls.
13. The only faith that wears well and holds its color in all weathers is that which is woven of conviction.
14. What a man knows should find expression in what he does.
15. He most lives who thinks most, feels the noblest, acts the best.

D. ERRORS IN THE USE OF PRONOUNS.

1. WRONG NUMBER-FORMS.

EXERCISE 207.

1. A tree is known by — fruit.
2. Deciduous trees shed — leaves annually.
3. Neither of the ships lowered — colors.
4. Let each person do — best.
5. Even a child is known by — doings.
6. Both the regiments laid down — arms.
7. Each pupil must provide — own books.
8. No faithful girl will forget — duties.

1. What is meant by the antecedent of a pronoun? 2. In the first two sentences, would you fill the blanks with "their" or "its"? 3. Give your reason, and explain the number of both pronoun and antecedent. 4. In the third sentence, does the subject "neither" mean one or more than one? 5. Will "their" correctly represent it? Give your reason. 6. In the next two sentences, why may we not use "their" to represent *person* and *child*? 7. Fill the blanks in the remaining sentences with "their," "her," "its," or "his," as you may think best. 8. When is the singular form of a pronoun to be used? 9. The plural? 10. The feminine?

311. We must be careful always to use a singular pronoun to represent a singular antecedent, and a plural pronoun to represent a plural antecedent.

It is incorrect to say, —

Every man of you must polish *their* own armor,
for the plural pronoun "*their*" does not correctly represent the singular antecedent "man." We should say, —

Every man of you must polish *his* own armor.

312. Agreement. *A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number, gender, and person.*

EXERCISE 208.

Fill the blanks with suitable pronouns, giving the reason for your choice. Thus:—

"Neither had discovered *his* mistake." The singular antecedent "neither" must be represented by the singular pronoun *his*. A pronoun must agree in number with its antecedent.

1. Neither had discovered — mistake. 2. Each contributed what — could. 3. Every one stoutly maintained — innocence. 4. The beaver shows great skill in constructing — dwellings. 5. Everybody must look out for —. 6. A person should control — wrath. 7. When one is ill, — will call a physician. 8. If you find *Little Women*, send — to me. 9. This is such bad news that I cannot believe —. 10. England expects every man to do — duty. 11. Each workman must provide — own tools.

12. Sharpen my shears so that — will cut. 13. Which of the two finished — work first? 14. Let each esteem others better than —. 15. A person may make — happy without wealth. 16. Let each of the girls take — place. 17. A person's manners frequently show — morals. 18. After you have read *My Girls*, return — to me. 19. If thine enemy hunger, feed —. 20. If anybody knows, — must not tell. 21. Many a man will sacrifice — reputation for a trifle. 22. If anybody calls, tell — to wait.

313. Antecedents joined by AND. *Singular antecedents connected by "and" must be represented by a plural pronoun when they denote different things, but by a singular pronoun (1) when they denote the same thing, or (2) when they are kept separate by the use of "each," "every," "many a," or "no."* Thus:—

Martha and Mary (two persons) wept for **their** brother.
The secretary and treasurer (one person) has resigned **his** office.
Each leaf and each flower can speak **its** Maker's praise.
Every maple and every elm will have shed **its** leaves.
Many a flower and many a gem may have **its** beauty hidden.
No friend and no acquaintance gave me **his** aid.

EXERCISE 209

Supply a suitable pronoun in each of these sentences, giving the reason for your choice:—

1. Joseph and Benjamin rejoiced to see — father. 2. Cultivate good temper and kind feeling: — presence will make all about you happy. 3. Envy and hatred make — possessor unhappy. 4. Poverty and wealth have each — own temptations. 5. Each officer and each soldier will be permitted to retain — arms. 6. My classmate and companion had completed — studies. 7. Every steamer and every train had — complement of passengers. 8. Every lady and every gentleman must register — name. [See § 315.] 9. The husband and father cannot support — family. 10. Every city and village and farm furnished — quota of soldiers.

314. Antecedents joined by OR or NOR. Use a singular pronoun to represent singular antecedents connected by or or nor. Thus:—

Either the president or the cashier must add **his** signature.

Neither Harrison, Taylor, nor Garfield completed **his** term of office.

315. In referring to singular nouns of different gender we must use pronouns of different gender, or else change the form of the sentence. Thus, we may say,—

Every boy or girl may keep **his** or **her** books, or

All the boys and girls may keep **their** books.

It is wrong, of course, to say, "Every boy or girl may keep **their** books." If there were a singular pronoun that could refer to either males or females, we might not be tempted so often to use "they" incorrectly.

EXERCISE 210.

Read these sentences, supplying a suitable pronoun, and giving a reason for your choice, according to § 314. Thus:—

"Neither Henry nor Thomas had paid **his** fare."

The singular pronoun **his** must be used to represent the singular nouns "Henry" and "Thomas," which are connected by "nor," and hence are to be taken separately.

1. Neither the lawyer nor the physician will give — services.
 2. If thy hand or thy foot offend thee, cut — off. 3. Where can I buy a good house or farm, if I want —? 4. Neither Alfred nor Ellen recited — lesson perfectly. 5. No man nor woman ever hurt — health in this way.

316. Collective Antecedents. *Represent a collective noun by a singular pronoun when you refer to the collection as a whole, and by a plural pronoun when you refer to the individuals of the collection separately. Thus:—*

The committee has transacted its business.

The jury have returned to their homes.

EXERCISE 211.

Fill each blank with a suitable pronoun, giving the reason for your choice.

1. The audience kept — seats till the close.
2. The jury had not brought in — verdict.
3. The House will elect — speaker next Monday.
4. The Board of Aldermen will be divided in — opinion.
5. Our club will go if a majority of — members vote to do so.
6. The Post will install — officers next week.

2. WRONG CASE-FORMS.

EXERCISE 212.

1. How many pronouns have three cases? 2. What are their names? 3. Decline "I," "she," and "who." 4. Which are the five most common uses of pronouns? 5. When a pronoun shows ownership, what form does it have? 6. Judging from the name, what uses require the objective form? 7. The subjective or nominative form?

317. When we use the pronouns that have three case-forms, we must be careful to use only the **nominative** forms as subjects and subjective complements, and only

the **objective** forms as objects of verbs or of prepositions.

Thus :—

I go. It is I. Follow me. Give me liberty. Bring the book to me.

318. Rule for Subjects, etc.—*Never use one of the nine objective case-forms,—me, us, thee, him, her, them, whom, whomever, whomsoever,—as a subject or as a subjective complement.*

EXERCISE 213.

Correct the following sentences. Thus :—

"It wasn't *me* that did it." Incorrect. The objective *me* is used in place of the nominative *I* as the subjective complement of *was*, contrary to the rule, "Never use one of the nine objective case-forms as a subject or as a subjective complement." The sentence should read, "It wasn't *I* that did it."

1. You and me will go together. 2. Why shouldn't us girls form a club? 3. Thy father says thee must obey. 4. I should go if I were him. 5. You said it was her that called. 6. Them that have want more. 7. I do not know whom it will be. 8. Reward whomever is deserving. 9. Whom do you think it is? 10. It is not us who are to blame. 11. Was it her that came last? 12. You have been slower than me. 13. Few can entertain an audience better than him. 14. I do not think it could have been them. 15. She knows better than you or me. 16. Them that do well should be rewarded. 17. It was not us that you told. 18. How much older are you than her? 19. Where are you and him to stay? 20. Who will ask for it, you or me?

319. Rule for Objects.—*Never use one of the ten nominative forms,—I, we, thou, ye, he, she, they, who, whoever, whosoever,—as the object of a verb or of a preposition.*

EXERCISE 214.

Correct the following sentences, giving your reason. Thus :—

"He has invited you and *I*." Incorrect. The nominative *I* is used in the place of the objective *me* as the object of the verb *has invited*, contrary to the rule, "Never use the nominative *I* as the object of a verb or of a preposition." The sentence should read, "He has invited you and *me*."

1. Let this be a secret between you and I. 2. Who did they choose? 3. I want you and he to go. 4. Nothing is too good for you nor she either. 5. Who did you see? 6. Tell me who you mean. 7. There was no one to go except she and her mother. 8. I wanted you and he to come again. 9. Who is this package for? 10. They that honor me I will honor. 11. Send whoever you choose. 12. I will give it to whosoever you select. 13. Who did he appoint as executor? 14. This is for you and I. 15. Let's we bring the sleigh.

EXERCISE 215.

Read the sentences, using that form of the pronoun which you think is correct. Give the reason for your choice.

1. Was it you or (I, me) that made the mistake? 2. It was intended for either you or (him, he). 3. (Who, whom) did he send with you? 4. Was it (him, he) (that, who, whom) you met at my uncle's? 5. Be careful (who, whom) you admit to your friendship. 6. No matter (who, whom) the poor fellow is, help him. 7. All (which, that) I have told you is between you and (I, me). 8. (Who, whom) shall we send in his place? 9. The committee did not agree in (its, their) opinion. 10. We saw the procession with (their, its) banner. 11. The best man (who, that) ever lived may be basely slandered.

12. There are few better men than (he, him). 13. Each of them must answer for (themselves, himself). 14. (Whom, who) besides him do you think was rewarded? 15. Nobody should praise (themselves, himself). 16. Can you forgive (we, us) girls for our folly? 17. We saw the prisoners and the flags (who, which, that) were captured. 18. Every man and boy took off (their, his) hat. 19. Please explain the phenomena: I do not understand (it, them). 20. That distinguished orator and statesman will give (their, his) lecture to-night. 21. Bring me the *Pleasures of Hope*. You will find (them, it) in the library. 22. Neither the king nor the queen wore (his, her, their) royal robes. 23. The oath was administered to such witnesses (that, as) were present.

320. An *appositive* pronoun requires the objective case-form only when in apposition with an object. Thus:—

Honor thy *mother*, **her** who loves thee well.
We will write to each other, **you** and **I**

321. A pronoun used *independently* or *with a participle* should generally have the *nominative case-form*. Thus:—

“O **Thou** who hearest prayer!” “**He** failing, who shall succeed?”

322. The *complement of “to be”* used as an *indirect predicate* must have the *objective case-form*. [§ 568.] Thus:—

I knew it to be **him**. He thought **them** to be **us**. **Whom** did he suppose **me** to be?

EXERCISE 216.

Read each of these sentences several times, using **different pronouns** to fill the blanks, when possible. Thus:—

It is *I*. It is *you*. It is *we*. It is *he*. It is *she*. It is *they*.

- | | | | |
|--|-----------------|--|----------------------|
| 1. It is ____. | 2. It was ____. | 16. It can't be ____. | 17. It must be ____. |
| 3. Is it ____? No, it is ____. | | 18. Was it ____? No, it was ____. | |
| 4. It is not ____ nor ____. | | 19. It was ____ and ____. | |
| 5. ____ and ____ will go. | | 20. They saw ____ and ____. | |
| 6. Neither ____ nor ____ went. | | 21. ____, ____, and ____ are going. | |
| 7. ____ and ____ saw ____ and ____. | | 22. ____ had more than ____. | |
| 8. Those are for ____ and ____. | | 23. He stood between ____ and ____. | |
| 9. He mistook ____ for ____. | | 24. Is this for ____ or ____? | |
| 10. Do you know ____ it is? | | 25. Do you know ____ he sent? | |
| 11. He knows ____ it was. | | 26. He knows ____ it is for. | |
| 12. ____ did he meet? | | 27. ____ were they with? | |
| 13. ____ knew it was ____. | | 28. She knew it to be either ____ or ____. | |
| 14. ____ was it to be? | | 29. ____ did you take ____ to be? | |
| 15. If ____ were ____, ____ would send ____. | | | |

3. CHOICE OF PRONOUNS.

323. Of the *relative pronouns*, **who** stands for *persons only*, **which** for *other things*, and **that** for *either*.

That, rather than *who* or *which*, should be used, —

(1) After a *superlative adjective*. Thus: —

The *wisest* man **that** ever lived.

(2) After *same*, *all*, and the interrogative *who*. Thus: —

The *same* friend **that** I visited. *All that* was left. *Who that* heard the orator can forget him?

(3) After antecedents denoting both *persons and things*. Thus: —

He spoke of the *men and cities* **that** he had seen.

Why not "*whom* he had seen" or "*which* he had seen"?

324. It is often better to use **that**, rather than "who" or "which," in **restrictive** clauses; that is, in clauses that limit the application of the antecedent by showing *which ones* or *how many*, etc., are meant. Other adjective clauses state an additional fact about the antecedent, and may be called explanatory or **appositive** clauses. For example: —

RESTRICTIVE. Franklin was the commissioner *that negotiated the treaty*.

APPOSITIVE. Congress appointed a commissioner, *who negotiated the treaty*.

325. Punctuation. RULE. — *Appositive clauses must be set off by commas.*

326. Use **each other** in speaking of two objects; **one another**, of more than two. As in, —

David and Jonathan loved (each) other.

How do the months compare [with (one) another]?

Each and **one** are generally in apposition with the subject of the verb; **other** and **another** with the object.

EXERCISE 217.

1. Fill the blanks with *who*, *which*, or *that*, and give the reason for your choice.

1. He was deceived by the friend in — he trusted. 2. A new party arose, — opposed the National Bank. 3. These are the same

persons — assisted us before. 4. Who are those — were introduced to us? 5. All — I said did not influence him. 6. They have not forgotten the friends and the home — they have left. 7. Is that the regiment of — you are a member? 8. He was the first — reached the New World. 9. The surgeon, — was a very skilful man, saved my friend's life. 10. The family — I visited cannot be the one to — you refer.

2. Point out the errors in the following sentences :—

1. The tribes of Southern Africa resemble each other. 2. Either of the five will help you. 3. The two nations are suspicious of one another. 4. We saw a ship that its masts were cut away.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Name four classes of pronouns. 2. Name those that are always of the same "person." 3. What two uses have conjunctive pronouns? 4. What is a clause? 5. An adjective clause? 6. A noun-clause? 7. Of what kind are pronouns that introduce adjective clauses? 8. What is a complex sentence? 9. Which pronouns have two number-forms? 10. Name the eight pronouns that have three case-forms. 11. Give the nine objective case-forms. 12. Use *who* in five different constructions. 13. Mention three rare uses of the personal pronouns. 14. What determines the number-form of a pronoun? 15. In what constructions must the nominative case-form be used? 16. The objective? 17. When must a singular pronoun represent a collective noun? 18. What is the rule for the number of a pronoun that represents two singular nouns? 19. Parse the pronouns in the following selection :—

He liveth long who liveth well;
 All else is life but flung away;
 He liveth longest who can tell
 Of true things truly done each day.
 Then fill each hour with what will last;
 Buy up the moments as they go;
 The life above, when this is past,
 Is the ripe fruit of life below.

CHAPTER IX.

ADJECTIVES.

[Review pages 37-46.]

EXERCISE 218.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Any bright, intelligent child. | 7. Several large Asiatic lions. |
| 2. Some poor anthracite coal. | 8. What plants are poisonous? |
| 3. Which planet is brightest? | 9. Those three decaying trees. |
| 4. Chasms, dark and dreadful. | 10. Every tenth man was lame. |
| 5. Six tall Russian soldiers. | 11. All the written evidence. |
| 6. That road looks cheerless. | 12. This water tastes salt. |

1. What is an adjective? 2. Which of the preceding adjectives *describe* what is mentioned? 3. Which show *how many* are meant? 4. Mention those that merely show *which ones* are referred to without describing them. 5. What is a predicate adjective? 6. Mention those used above. 7. Name the adjectives used to ask questions. 8. The two derived from proper nouns. 9. Those that are made from verbs. 10. Those that show quantity. 11. Which besides the predicate adjectives follow the nouns that they modify?

A. KINDS.

327. Most adjectives are words that may be added to a noun **to describe** the object named by showing that it is of a certain kind or quality, or that it is in a certain state or condition. As,—

white snow; **skilful** surgeons; **wounded** men; **daily** walks.

Such adjectives often *limit* the application of a noun to those of a certain kind, as in the last three examples.

328. All other adjectives do nothing else but **determine** or **limit** the application of a noun by showing *which ones, how many, or what quantity*. As, —

this brook; **the fourth** day; **six** perch; **few** trout; **much** rain.

329. A *Descriptive* adjective is one that *describes* what is mentioned.

330. Descriptive adjectives derived from proper nouns are called **proper** adjectives. Those that are forms of verbs are called **participial** adjectives. Thus:—

Brazilian diamonds; **fatiguing** journeys; **decayed** wood.

EXERCISE 219.

From the following nouns **form proper adjectives** to fill the blanks in the sentences:—

Genoa, France, America, Spain, Persia, Venice, Italy, China, Japan, Turkey, Greece, Mexico, Africa, Shakespeare, Malta, Brazil.

1. — navigators sailed under the — flag. 2. The — flag and the — flag have three colors each. 3. — carpets and — rugs are imported. 4. — lanterns and — fans are sold here. 5. The windows have — blinds. 6. He is an excellent — reader. 7. Which are more valuable, — or — diamonds? 8. He played several — airs. 9. Draw a — cross and a — cross. 10. We met two —, a —, and several —. 11. Cochineal is a — product.

331. A *Limiting* adjective is one that merely shows *which ones, how many, and so on, without describing*.

332. Limiting adjectives include the following:—

I. The two **Articles**, — **the**; **an** or **a**.

(a) **The** is the *definite* article, used with either singular or plural nouns to point out some particular thing or things.

(b) **An** or **a** is the *indefinite* article, used with singular nouns to show that we mean either *one* only or *any* one.

II. **Numeral** adjectives, — showing *how many* or *which one* of a series, *how large a part, etc.* As, —

March contains **thirty-one** days, or **four** weeks and **three** days. Pronounce the **third** word on the **ninety-first** page. A **tenth** part is smaller than a **sixth** part.

III. The **Interrogative** adjectives, — **which** and **what**. As, —
Which road leads to Rome? **What** cities were destroyed?

IV. The **Conjunctive** adjectives, — **which** and **what**, with their compounds, used to introduce a noun-clause, or to connect it to the rest of the sentence. As, —

Do you know **what** presidents died in office?

Send me **whatever** facts you may obtain.

We have not heard **which** army was victorious.

Some conjunctive adjectives are relatives, and some are interrogatives,

V. **Possessive** adjectives, — nouns and pronouns like *Mary's*, *my*, *his*, etc., which are adjectives by use. [See §§ 138, 355.]

VI. **Demonstrative** adjectives, — *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, and *yonder*, which point out objects definitely.

VII. **Distributive** adjectives, — *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, and *many a*, which refer to objects singly.

EXERCISE 220.

1. **Classify** the adjectives in Exercise 139.

2. **Construct ten sentences**, each containing a limiting and a descriptive adjective.

B. INFLECTION: CHANGES OF FORM.

COMPARISON.

EXERCISE 221.

1. Lake Erie is a large lake.

2. Lake Michigan is larger than Lake Erie.

3. Lake Superior is the largest lake in the world.

1. Mention the descriptive adjectives in these sentences. 2. What two lakes are compared? 3. With reference to what quality are they compared? 4. Which of the two has that quality in the greater degree? 5. What change in the form of the adjective is made to

show this? 6. With what is Lake Superior compared? 7. What lake is of greater size than Lake Superior? 8. What lake has the quality of size in the highest degree? 9. In these comparisons what changes do you notice in the form of the adjective?

333. Many adjectives are changed in form to show that one object has *more of the quality* than others with which it is compared.

Thus, without making a comparison, we say, —

This is a **high** mountain ;

but, to show that another mountain with which we compare it has the quality of height in a *greater* degree, we add **er** to the adjective, and say, —

Mt. Lafayette is a **higher** mountain.

And if we wish to show that one mountain among all those we are considering has the quality of height in the *greatest* degree, we add **est** to the adjective, and say, —

Mt. Washington is the **highest** mountain in the state.

334. To add **er** and **est** to an adjective that it may denote different degrees of a quality is to **compare** it.

335. *Comparison* is a change in the form of an adjective to denote different degrees of the quality.

336. The **positive** degree of an adjective is its simple, unchanged form. As, *tall, heavy, sad.*

The **comparative** degree is the form that ends in **er**. As, *taller, heavier, sadder.*

The **superlative** degree is the form that ends in **est**. As, *tallest, heaviest, saddest.*

EXERCISE 222.

1. Tell **which degree** of these adjectives is given: —

Happier; nobler; musty; clearer; slower; nearest; hot; proper; bright; slender; small; politer; fairest; luckiest; surest.

2. Compare the following adjectives [see § 415]:—

Thin; feeble; strong; merry; lofty; brave; short; jolly; pretty; red; coy; gloomy; keen; shy; rough; great; mighty; lovely; idle; profound.

3. Which change *y* to *i*? Which really add only *r* and *st*? Which double the last consonant?

337. Irregular comparison. The following adjectives are compared in an irregular way,—sometimes by *quite different words*:—

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.	POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
Good } Well }	better	best	Late	{ later { latter	{ latest { last
Bad } Ill }				worse	worst
Little	less	least	Old		
Many } Much }	more	most		[In]	inner
[Forth]			further	furthest	[Out]
Far	farther	farthest	[Up]	upper	
Fore	former	{ first { foremost			

NOTE. The words in brackets are adverbs. Several other superlatives are made adding *-most* instead of *-est*. As,—

northern, northernmost; southern, southernmost.

338. We have learned (§ 130) that by using adverbs as modifiers adjective phrases may be formed denoting various degrees of quality. Thus:—

cold, **slightly cold**, **rather cold**, **very cold**, **uncommonly cold**,
extremely cold.

339. In this way, by using the adverbs **less** and **least**, we may represent degrees of quality below the positive; and, by using **more** and **most**, we may form adjective phrases, which are equivalent to the inflected forms in **er** and **est**. Thus:—

least polite; less polite; polite; $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{more polite} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{politer;} \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{most polite} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{politest.} \end{array} \right.$

340. Adjectives that are not Compared. Since to most adjectives we cannot add **er** and **est** without making awkward or ill-sounding words, we must use these equivalent adjective phrases in comparing objects.

Thus we say "a *more remarkable* adventure," "the *most porous* substance," and not "remarkabler" or "porousest."

341. The adjectives to which **er** and **est** may be added are words of one syllable and a few words of two syllables, chiefly those ending in **y** or **le**. As, —

Happy, hearty, ready; noble, able; polite, mellow, etc.

342. A few adjectives denote qualities that cannot exist in different degrees, and hence they can neither be compared nor modified by *more* and *most*. As, —

Dead, chief, square, equal, principal, spherical, etc.

NOTE. Such forms as *rounder, straighter, truest*, are sometimes used as if they meant *more nearly round* or *straight*, or *nearest true*.

EXERCISE 223.

1. Change the comparatives and superlatives to equivalent adjective phrases, and change the phrases to equivalent adjectives.

Handsom^{er}; more shallow; most sincere; fittest; more handy; sauciest; most ample; narrowest; slenderest; more nimble; braver; gentlest.

2. Change them all to phrases denoting lower and lowest degrees.

3. Tell which of the following adjectives are not compared, and give your reason: —

Luscious; empty; hollow; supreme; wrong; tenth; deaf; particular; false; vain; fashionable; naked; honest; lucrative; void; these; blind; equal; fatal; dry; wet; best; mean; dutiful; level.

343. Number. Only two adjectives, **this** and **that**, change their form when used with nouns plural in meaning. Thus :—

this kind; **these** varieties; **that** reason; **those** reasons.

(a) **A** or **an**, **another**, **each**, **either**, **neither**, **many a**, **much**, and **one** are used only with singular nouns; and **both**, **many**, **several**, **sundry**, **divers**, and **most** numeral adjectives, only with plural nouns.

C. USES, OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

344. An adjective may stand in several different relations to the word that it modifies.

345. I. (a) An adjective may be *closely connected* with its noun as an **attribute**, or part of the name. Thus :—

Those | **brave** soldiers prepared for **the** | **coming** battle.

(b) Or it may be used *separately*, as an **appositive**. Thus :—

The **enemy**, equally **brave**, began the conflict.

Cool and **resolute**, **they** awaited the onset.

346. II. It may be joined to a copulative verb as a **predicate** adjective, showing what is asserted of the subject. Thus :—

The contest was **long** and **bloody**, and the result seemed **doubtful**.

(a) When an adjective [or a noun] is the complement of one of the infinitives or participles of a copulative verb, (1) It may refer to some word in the sentence. As in,—

Each army strove to be **victorious**. He tried to become **king**.

Having been **successful**, we pursued the enemy.

or (2) It may be used abstractly, without reference to any noun; as in,—

To be **intemperate** is to be **miserable**. Being **good** is one way of doing good. To become a **scholar** is a laudable desire.

347. III. An adjective may be joined to a transitive verb or verbal word as an **objective complement** to com-

plete its meaning and at the same time add a quality to the object of it. [See § 233.] As in,—

His troubles made him **insane**. We tried to make him **comfortable**.

348. The objective complement shows that a quality or condition is a *result* of the action expressed by the verb; as in,—

The blow struck him **dead**.

Sometimes the quality is indirectly asserted [§ 568] as *already belonging* to the object, as in,—

We found this exercise **healthful**.

NOTE. When a transitive verb is changed to a passive verb-phrase (§ 452), not only does its *object* become a subject, but its *objective* complement becomes a *subjective* complement.

His inventions made Fulton (famous).

Fulton was made famous [by his inventions].

349. Adjectives used as Other Parts of Speech. When used alone to represent an object, descriptive adjectives become *nouns* (§§ 254–257), and limiting adjectives become *pronouns* (§ 285). Many adjectives are also used as *adverbs* (§ 511).

350. How to Parse an Adjective. To parse an adjective we have to tell only its (1) *kind*, (2) *form*,—if comparative or superlative,—(3) *use*.

These forms may be followed:—

1. “<Full many a> gem <of purest ray serene>
(The) (dark), (unfathomed) caves <of ocean> bear.”
2. Do you know (what) (American) historian was blind?
3. (Which) king (of England) had <six> wives?

many-a is a *limiting* adjective; used to modify **gem**.

purest is a *descriptive* adjective; *superlative*; used to modify **ray**.

American is a *proper, descriptive* adjective; used to modify **historian**.

what is a *conjunctive* adjective; used to modify **historian**.

blind is a *descriptive* adjective; used as subjective complement of **was**, and referring to **historian**.

which is an *interrogative* adjective; used to modify **king**.

six is a *numeral* adjective; used to modify **wives**.

351. In written parsing we may use initial letters as abbreviations. [See page 177.] Thus:—

many-a	= lAj.; mod. gem.	what	= cAj.; mod. historian .
purest	= dAj.; sup.; mod. ray.	blind	= dAj.; SC. of was , refers to historian .
American	= pAj.; mod. historian .	which	= iAj.; mod. king .
		six	= nAj.; mod. wives .

EXERCISE 224.

Analyze these sentences, and **parse the adjectives**:—

1. Gentle rains revive the thirsty fields. 2. Firm-paced and slow, a horrid front they bore. 3. Calm and serene as the iron walls around him, stood Regulus the Roman. 4. Many amusements appear harmless which are really dangerous. 5. The painting looks attractive, but the artist does not seem satisfied. 6. A few critics have pronounced it perfect. 7. The government considered him competent to command. 8. Make the house where gods may dwell beautiful, entire, and clean. 9. Many try in vain to be happy. 10. The people found their new ruler to be cruel and blood-thirsty. 11. Appearing honest and being honest are very different things. 12. You must tell me about what things you see. 13. Medicine only made the patient worse. 14. To be prodigal in youth is to be needy in age. 15. Which course would you advise him to take? 16. Whatever efforts you make will be rewarded. 17. Fortune may make a man famous, but it cannot make him great. 18. It finds him poor; it makes him rich.

SUMMARY: ADJECTIVES.

352. To sum up: An adjective is a word that adds to the meaning of a noun or a pronoun, without asserting anything nor standing by itself as a name.

353.

Kinds	{	Descriptive (<i>d</i>)	{ Proper (<i>p</i>) Participial (<i>part</i>)
		Limiting (<i>l</i>)	{ Numeral (<i>n</i>) Interrogative (<i>i</i>) Conjunctive (<i>c</i>)
Forms	{	Positive	(<i>pos</i>)
		Comparative	(<i>comp</i>)
		Superlative	(<i>sup</i>)

Uses, or Constructions.

1. **Modifies** the noun (or pronoun) —.
2. **Subjective Complement** of the verb (inf. or part.) —.
(*a*) Referring to —. (*b*) Used abstractly.
3. **Objective Complement** of the verb (inf. or part.) —.

354. Derivative and Compound Adjectives. It is often easy to see that an adjective has been made from another word by some addition or other slight change. [See §§ 245-248.] Thus:—

- (1) From *nouns*; as, **brutal**, "like a brute."
- (2) From *other adjectives*; as, **blackish**, "somewhat black."
- (3) From *verbs*; as, **tiresome**, "such as tires."

Sometimes two words are put together into one that is full of descriptive meaning when applied to something named. Thus:—

blue-eyed, "having blue eyes"; **sky-blue**, "blue as the sky";
evergreen, "that stays green."

355. Nouns used Adjectively. The possessive case of nouns is often, as we know (§ 138), used with the force of an adjective, as in "the **man's** arm"; and so at times is many another noun, as in,—
an **iron** bar; **night** winds; **bird** stores; the **Lake** region.

But such nouns have not quite become adjectives, for we cannot say "the wind is **night**."

356. Adverbs used Adjectively. In expressions like—
the room **beyond**; she was **away**; the **outside** appearance,

and in many others, we see words that are ordinarily adverbs serving the purpose of adjectives, as if we had said, —

yonder room; she was absent; the external appearance.

EXERCISE 225.

1. Tell from what word and what part of speech each adjective is derived. Explain the change of form and the change of meaning.

Wooded; slavish; senseless; manly; irregular; educated; dishonest; teachable; southern; bloody; wondrous; unwise; Turkish; quarrelsome; swollen; deadly; impure; careful; lasting.

2. Change each adjective to a phrase of the same meaning: —

Everlasting; ankle-deep; childlike; pitch-dark; out-spoken; hopeful; heart-rending; four-footed; overdone; sea-girt; old-fashioned; water-tight; homesick.

D. ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES.

EXERCISE 226.

1. Which of these lines is more easily read? Give what you think is the reason.

a ark, a eel, a imp, a oak, a urn, a hour; an one, an unit.
an ark, an eel, an imp, an oak, an urn, an hour; a one, a unit.

2. How many objects are referred to in each of these expressions? Give your reasons.

1. A rich and a poor man. 2. A long and rough road. 3. A short and a pleasing story. 4. The easiest and the most direct route. 5. A red, a white, and a blue flag. 6. A red, white, and blue flag. 7. A fashionable and an intellectual woman. 8. The rich and the generous man. 9. A wealthy and benevolent gentleman.

357. A or An. A should be used only before words beginning with consonant sounds, and an before words beginning with vowel sounds. Thus: —

A house, an honor; a wonder, a one, an onion, an ounce; a yew, a ewe, a ūse, a ūnit, a eulogy, an ūrchin, an ūncle.

NOTE. *One* begins with the consonant sound of *w*, and *long u* begins with the consonant sound of *y*.

358. Article repeated. *When two or more connected adjectives describe different objects, the article is used with each; but when they describe the same object, the article is used with the first only.* Thus:—

A pink and a white dahlia (two flowers).

A pink and white dahlia (one flower).

359. Agreement. *An adjective that denotes one, or more than one, must agree in number with the noun that it limits.* Thus we should say,—

“**This** kind,” not “*these* kind”; “three **feet** wide,” not “three *foot* wide”; “**that** sort,” not “*those* sort”; “six **pounds** of tea,” not “six *pound*.”

360. Such expressions as *a few, a dozen, a great many, a hundred, ten thousand, three hundred sixty-five, two and a half*, may be considered adjective phrases when they modify nouns.

361. Them. *Never use them as an adjective.*

Expressions like “them books,” “them things,” are among the worst errors.

EXERCISE 227.

Correct the following sentences, giving your reason for the changes made:—

1. Brutus was a honorable man.
2. This is an universal truth.
3. He was a kind and an indulgent parent.
4. Omit the first and second stanza.
5. The poor and rich have equal rights.
6. She was married to a dignified and a kindly man.
7. I prefer these kind of rugs.
8. Did they use those hose at the fire?
9. You must avoid those sort of people.
10. Drowned in six fathom of water.
11. I haven't seen him for this two weeks.
12. We must catch them horses.

362. Adjectives not compared. *Do not compare adjectives so as to make ill-sounding or meaningless forms.*

Say the *most awkward* fellow, not the *awkwardest*; and *more nearly square*, rather than *squarer*.

363. Double Comparison. *Do not modify comparatives by more nor superlatives by most.*

For "They could not find a *more worthier* man," say, "a *worthier* man" or "a *more worthy* man." In "This is the *most unwise*st course," omit either *most* or *st*.

364. Forms Confused. *Use the comparative form in comparing two objects, the superlative in comparing more than two.* Thus:—

Which is **better**, — health or wealth?

Which is **best**, — health, wealth, or learning?

365. OTHER misused. *Do not spoil a comparison by wrongly inserting or omitting the word **other**.* Thus:—

"New York is larger than any city in America," should of course be "than any *other* city in America"; and "Rhode Island is the smallest of all the other States," should be "of all the States."

366. Adverbs for Adjectives. *Do not use an adjective where an adverb is needed.*

Not "move *slow*," but "move **slowly**"; not "*real* good," but "**really** or **very** good."

EXERCISE 228.

Correct the following sentences, giving your reason:—

1. Go very quick. 2. I never heard a more truer remark. 3. Which is largest, — the numerator or the denominator? 4. Which is the best actor, — Booth or Irving? 5. Speak loud and distinct. 6. This is the most quietest part of the city. 7. Let such an one rise, if present.

8. I never saw any thing neater done. 9. Which is nearest the north pole, — Europe or Asia? 10. This copy is very perfect. 11. Were you weighed on that scales? 12. He is the awkwardest skater on the pond. 13. Of all my other friends, I like him best. 14. Brother Charles is taller than any member of our family.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Explain the difference between descriptive and limiting adjectives. 2. Name three classes of limiting adjectives. 3. Use *which* as a conjunctive adjective. 4. Why is *what* sometimes called a conjunctive adjective? 5. How and why are adjectives compared? 6. What substitute is there for the comparative degree? 7. When is the superlative degree used? 8. What adjectives are not compared? 9. How do you discriminate in the use of *a* and *an*? 10. Mention three errors to be avoided in the use of adjectives. 11. Parse the adjectives in the following selection :—

Thanks for the heavenly message brought by thee,
 Child of the wandering sea,
 Cast from her lap forlorn!
 From thy dead lips a clearer note is born
 Than ever Triton blew from wreathed horn!
 While on mine ear it rings,
 Through the deep caves of thought I hear a voice that sings :—
 Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
 As the swift seasons roll!
 Leave thy low-vaulted past!
 Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
 Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
 Till thou at length art free,
 Leaving thine outgrown shell by life's unresting sea!

O. W. HOLMES.

CHAPTER X.

VERBS.

[Review Chapter V.]

367. The life of a sentence is the *verb* that it contains; if we take that away, no matter how many words remain, the meaning is generally gone.

368. Whatever *object* is in our thought we can mention by its *name*, using such nouns as—

earth, men, sun, fires, heat, trees;

but when things move, or act, or endure; that is, when they begin *to do* or *to be* something, what we then have to say about them can be expressed only by **verbs**. With these—

(1) We may *declare* or *predict* that “The earth **revolves**”; “Men **will work**”; “The sun **gives** light”; “Fires **are** hot”;

(2) We may *ask*—“**Is** heat a power?” and—

(3) We may *command*—“**Burn** the trees.”

A. KINDS.

EXERCISE 229.

1. Which verbs in Exercises 87 and 110 describe the subject as *moving*? 2. In Exercise 96, which as *doing* something? 3. In Exercises 87 and 88 find five that describe the subject as having something *done to it*.

369. Though in a general way all verbs are alike, and though each has a meaning of its own, it is easy and necessary to divide and group them into certain classes.

370. We have already found that the verb alone is sometimes quite enough to make a finished predicate; as in —

The earth **revolves**. The sun **rises**.

But sometimes it seems only to have begun what another word must finish; as in —

The sun **gives** — light. The earth **is** — a sphere.

Hence we class verbs as **Complete** and **Incomplete**.

371. *Incomplete verbs, or those that need complements*, are again divided into classes as follows: —

Copulative verbs connect the complement to the subject which it describes; as, —

Fire is hot. We were without food. Heat is a force.

Transitive verbs need an object to show what the action affects; as, —

The sun gives **light**. Burn the **trees**.

EXERCISE 230.

1. Supply subjects to these verbs, and **complements** where they seem to be needed: —

Screamed; stays; fly; ate; cut; punished; grew; drink; seek; depart; talked; tears; looks; seemed; saw; were; became; found; arm; wore; feels; had; spoke; are; was.

2. Explain the **difference between the two kinds** of complements that you have added.

3. Is the **case of a pronoun** always the same when it is used as a complement? What does "transitive" mean?

372. Of these three kinds of verbs, *complete*, *copulative*, and *transitive*, the two that are not complete may, of course, be called **incomplete**, and the two that are not transitive may be called **intransitive**.

373. The same verb may belong to different classes, according to the different senses in which it is used. Thus, in the sentence —

The trees **grow**,

the verb **grow** is *complete* and cannot take an object; in —

Stones **grow** old,

the verb is *incomplete* and *copulative*, for it needs the complement “old” to describe the subject; and in —

The florists **grow** cuttings under glass,

grow is still *incomplete*, but it is *transitive* since its complement, instead of describing the subject, is an object, showing what the action affects.

374. Copulative Verbs. No verb is always copulative, and only a small number are ever so; one of them however is extremely common, namely, **be**, which — with its various forms, **am**, **is**, **was**, **were**, etc. — helps to make many verb-phrases; as in —

“We are waiting,” for “We wait.”

(a) **Be** is sometimes used like “exist” as a *complete* verb with more of its original meaning; as in —

The time **was**, when no one lived here; There **is** a God;

but generally it seems only to connect the subject to what is asserted of it.

(b) **Be** enters into the meaning of all other copulative verbs. Thus:—

He **appeared** wise = **was** wise *in appearance*.

The clouds **look** distant = **are** distant *to the sight*.

The water **tastes** bitter = **is** bitter *to the taste*.

So with **feel**, **sound**, **smell**, **become**, **seem**, etc.

EXERCISE 231.

Point out the verbs the meaning of which is completed by some expression that is **descriptive of the subject**.

1. The case seems more hopeful. 2. Man became a living soul. 3. The man has turned fool. 4. He looks well and feels much stronger. 5. Why stand ye here idle? 6. All bloodless lay the untrodden snow. 7. He had been called wise. 8. The English forces proved irresistible. 9. The shutters blew open. 10. The buds smell sweet, but they taste bitter. 11. Some men are born great. 12. Some are thought wise or rich. 13. The train came thundering along as we lay stretched upon the grass. 14. We are in great danger, and, if I were leader, our advance should be slow. 15. He lived a miser, kept adding to his store, and died unhappy.

375. Sometimes the complement seems to have as much to do with the verb as with the subject. Thus, the predicate adjectives in the first column convey about the same meaning as the adverbs in the second column :—

She sits *still*.

It shines *bright*.

He came *running*.

She sits *quietly*.

It shines *brightly*.

He came *swiftly*.

But sometimes the adjectives and the adverbs have different meanings. [§ 513.]

EXERCISE 232.

Explain the use of the adjectives and of the adverbs, and tell the **difference in meaning** between—

"That looks good" and "That looks well."

"He looked careful" and "He looked carefully."

"He feels strong" and "He feels strongly."

"She appeared hasty" and "She appeared hastily."

"She looks kind to me" and "She looked kindly at me."

376. Transitive Verbs. Verbs that are usually transitive may also be used *intransitively*; i.e., they may signify merely that something is done, nothing being said about what is affected by the action. So we say,—

"He stayed his wrath" or "He seldom stayed."
 "He speaks English" or "He speaks slowly."

377. Even verbs that are usually intransitive may sometimes take an object. Thus:—

Sit *thee* down. She **worked** *herself* to death. They **live** a dreary life, and **are running** a hopeless race. **Walk** your horses up hill.

378. Objective Complement. Many transitive verbs take a complement descriptive of the object. [See § 235.]

EXERCISE 233.

1. Make short sentences showing how each verb may be used either transitively or intransitively:—

Answer; boils; dissolve; returned; smells; survive; break; fell; slipped; believes; becomes; shakes; rained; pulls; struck; drives; gnaw; sing; worries; felt; sounds; followed; rattled; tasted; fear; stay.

2. Find ten other verbs that may be used in both ways.

B. INFLECTION: CHANGES IN FORM.

379. As with nouns and pronouns, so with verbs, each has several forms made by inflection to correspond to changes in the use or in the meaning.

The phrases that are used instead of inflected forms we shall study later. [See page 205.]

1. TENSE-FORMS

EXERCISE 234.

1. Tell whether the time referred to is **present** or **past**. If in doubt, add "now" or "yesterday."

He thinks.	She rides.	It stood.	They fall.
I thought.	They caught.	We found	Waves dash.
He catches.	I walked.	I lose.	Water freezes.
We study.	You wrote.	It grows.	Ice breaks.
You went.	We sent.	She saw.	Time flies.

2. Change each verb so that it will refer to some other time.

380. Nearly every verb has one change of form that affects the meaning as much as if it were modified by an adverb. Thus, speaking of the *present* time, we say,—

I come; I wait; I stay;

but if it was at some time in the *past* that the coming, waiting, or staying took place, we say,—

I came; I waited; I stayed.

381. Forms that are changed to express a difference in time are called **Tenses**, which means *times*.

EXERCISE 235.

Tell whether the form of the verb denotes **present** or **past** time:—

I have.	Thou mayest.	He was.	Thou canst.	He shall.
He does.	You may.	I will.	You can.	Thou art.
I did.	He might.	He would.	They could.	He hath.
You are.	I am.	They had.	Thou hast.	You should.
We were.	Thou wast.	She has.	It is.	Thou dost.

382. The *Present* tense of a verb is the form that generally refers to present time. As,—

I stand; I work; I live.

383. The present tense is sometimes used of what is *past* or *future* to make it seem present or distinct; as,—

In the fifteenth century a new era **begins**.
We **leave** the city to-morrow.

384. In form the present tense is like the *simple infinitive*, or *root*, from which all other forms are derived.

(a) The verb *be* is an exception, since its present *am* is formed from another root.

385. The *Past* tense of a verb is the form that generally refers to past time. As, —

I stood; I worked; I lived.

386. The past tense is sometimes used of what is really *present* or *future* to make it seem doubtful; as, —

If I *were* well to-day — If I *should* go to-morrow —

EXERCISE 236.

Write the **present tense** of —

Patted; played; began; could; caught; worked; stood; walked; chose; came; waited; bit; tried; crept; struck; blew; broke; flew; gazed; brought; burnt; whipped; did; bled; dug.

387. The common or regular way of changing the present to the past form is by *adding d or ed at the end*. Thus: —

I lived; I borrowed; I waited.

But in a number of the oldest verbs the change appears in the middle of the word, whether anything is added or not. Thus: —

stand, stood; fall, fell; see, saw.

(a) The verbs *be* and *go* are exceptions, for the past tenses *was* and *went* are formed from different roots. [See § 416.]

EXERCISE 237.

Write the **past tense** of as many of these as you can: —

Work; write; make; wear; think; till; love; take; strike; see; pour; steal; speak; sit; sell; run; ride; guess; smoke; give; part; drive; dream; ask; try.

388. About twenty verbs cannot be changed in this way, and the time is therefore shown by something besides the form; as, —

Now we spread our tents. We spread them yesterday.

In such cases we may *call* the form present or past according to its *use*.

389. *Tenses* are the forms of a verb that distinguish time.

2. Mood.

390. If we study verbs in sentences, we find them used to predicate in several ways or modes. Thus, they may be used —

1. **To command**, as in "**Be** ready."; "**Wish** with me."

2. (a) **To assert positively**, as in "I **am** ready"; "She **wishes** it."

(b) **To question**, as in "**Am** I ready?" "Who **wishes** this?"

3. **To say something doubtfully**, as if only thought of; as in —
"If it **be** there, I will bring it"; "If I **were** ready, I would go."

391. It was once the custom to use in such cases quite different forms of the verb called — not tenses to show times — but **Moods** to show the manner or mood in which a person spoke. Even nowadays the forms are not always the same, and hence we say that —

392. I. A verb used to express a *command* or a *request* is in the **Imperative** mood. As, —

Go quickly. **Come** with me. **Be** honest.

393. II. A verb used either (1) *to state something as a fact*, or (2) *to ask a simple question*, is in the **Indicative** mood. As, —

He **goes** quickly. She **wishes** it.

If she **was** there, I **failed** to see her.

Most sentences are, as we know, of this kind.

394. III. A verb used to express in a doubtful way either (1) *what is uncertain and to be decided in the future*, or (2) *a supposition that is contrary to fact*, or (3) *a wish*, is in the **Subjunctive mood**. As, —

(1) Though he **be** dead, we shall find him. Even if he **fail**, he will not despair. (2) If she **were** willing, I would help her. (3) I wish I **were** well. Thy kingdom **come**.

Sentences of this kind are comparatively rare.

395. We know that the *order of words* may distinguish an assertion from a question; as in —

“Does he ride?” “He does ride”;

and also that the *dropping of the subject* may distinguish an assertion from a command; as in —

“You ride every day”; “Ride every day.”

Now commonly there is nothing about the form of a verb to show in what manner it is used; but still there are a few special forms in the indicative mood, so that even now the form *does sometimes vary* with different modes of speaking. Thus: —

INDICATIVE FORMS.

1. Thy foe **appears**; advance.
2. Thine enemy **thirsts**; give him drink.
3. He **telleth** all our plans.
4. He said he **was** to stay.
5. I know what the result **is**.

INDICATIVE FORM.

1. Thou **keepest** my feet from falling.

SUBJUNCTIVE FORMS.

1. If thy foe **appear**, advance.
2. If thine enemy **thirst**, give him drink.
3. See that he **tell** no man.
4. He said that if he **were** to stay —
5. Whatever **be** the result —

IMPERATIVE FORM.

1. **Keep** thou my feet from falling.

396. When used with the same subject, such forms as **appears, thirsts, telleth, was, is, am, art, are**, belong only

to the *Indicative* mood; such forms as **appear, thirst, tell, were, be**, belong only to the *Subjunctive* mood. Forms like **keep** instead of **keepest** belong to the *Imperative* mood. [For Potential phrases, see § 432.]

397. *Mood* is the power of a verb to denote the manner of speaking.

EXERCISE 238.

Select from the following sentences **five** verbs that express a command; **three** that express a wish or a supposition contrary to the fact; **three** that state something as uncertain and to be decided in the future; **three** that assert a condition assumed to be a fact; **five** that state facts positively:—

1. Clouds bring rain. 2. Dare to do right. 3. I wish my father were here. 4. The eclipse was total. 5. A robin built its nest in our elm. 6. If I am not paid, I work hard. 7. Speak kindly to the erring. 8. He would be a spendthrift if he were rich. 9. If he was severe, he was not unjust. 10. The crew furled the sails. 11. Be just, and fear not. 12. Improve your opportunity before it be lost. 13. I should go even if the danger were greater. 14. If the truth be known, no harm can result. 15. Though she was there, I did not see her. 16. If it be fair, we shall go.

3. NUMBER AND PERSON.

398. The differences in the special indicative forms of a verb depend on what its subject is. Thus, in the *present* tense we say,—

I, we, you, they, or the men **stay**; but
He, she, it, or the man **stays**.—

using a *special form* made by adding **s** or **es** whenever the subject is a third-singular pronoun or a singular noun.

399. As this special form is never used except with a subject denoting the *third person* and the *singular number*,

it is called the **third-singular** form. It is also called the **s-form**, because it always ends in **s**.

EXERCISE 239.

Use every one of these words in succession to fill each blank, and spell the **third-singular** form of the verb:—

I, you, he, we, you, she, they, we, it, the men, the man.

— go,	— find,	— perch,	— deny,	— smash,
— wish,	— ply,	— crouch,	— watch,	— cry,
— have,	— do,	— row,	— lie,	— lay.

400. Changes to suit the person and number of the subject were once much more common than now, and two old-style forms such as we see in the Bible, are still used, especially in prayer and in poetry. Thus:—

(a) With **thou** as subject the verb takes the ending **st** or **est** in both the present and past indicative tenses. For example:—

Thou **waitest**. Thou **waitedst**. Thou **goest**. Thou **stoodst**; and (b) instead of the customary third-singular form in **s**, a form ending in **th** or **eth** may be used in the present tense. Thus:—

She **giveth**. He **goeth**. The wind **bloweth**.

EXCEPTIONS. The verb **be** keeps many of its old changes of form, as shown in § 416.

Dare (meaning *venture*), and sometimes **need**, takes no added **s** with a third-singular subject. Thus:—

He dare not go.	He dares you to do it.
He need not stay.	He needs a coat.

401. The meaning of the verb is hardly affected by such changes, for they only show to which one or to how many the statement applies; but as they are made according to the meaning of the subject, that is sometimes said “to govern” the verb, and the verb is said “to agree with its subject.”

4. VERBAL NOUNS and VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

402. By inflecting a verb in these different ways, we change the *form*, the *application*, and sometimes the *use* of it; but so long as it can predicate in any way, it still remains a verb.

We now come to certain other **verbal forms** that do not predicate anything, and therefore are *not* verbs like the rest.

EXERCISE 240.

1. Which words and phrases are used as **nouns** to form a subject, a subjective complement, or an object?

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. It needs painting. | 5. He enjoys walking briskly. |
| 2. It needs to be painted. | 6. I like to walk. |
| 3. She ceased weeping aloud. | 7. To go at once is best. |
| 4. She ceased to mourn. | 8. To live is to breathe. |

2. Which words are used as qualifying **adjectives**?

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Standing corn. | 6. It is shut. |
| 2. A lost cause. | 7. A promise given. |
| 3. A broken reed. | 8. Decayed trees. |
| 4. A flowing robe. | 9. The twig was bent. |
| 5. Leave the door locked. | 10. Are they living or dead? |
11. The sea is rippled and sparkling.
 12. A man disheartened by misfortune.
 13. Your horse is caught, harnessed, and waiting for you.

3. Consider each word that you have selected in each exercise, and, if it contains the idea of a *verb*, give one of the **present tense-forms**.

EXERCISE 241.

1. Which of these verbal words and expressions **cannot form the predicate** of a sentence?

- | | | | | |
|---------|--------|---------|---------|---------|
| grow | took | broken | flying | give |
| running | goes | flew | fallen | grown |
| come | worked | playing | to take | to wait |

2. Which may be **nouns**, and which **adjectives**?

403. From almost every verb are formed two special kinds of verbal words having the use of *other parts of speech*.

Thus, besides the true *verbs* **drives**, **drove**, we have two *nouns*, **driving** and **(to) drive**, that name the action expressed by the verb; as in —

Driving is pleasant; I like **to drive**;

and two *adjectives*, **driving** and **driven**, that describe either the actor or the receiver of the action; as in —

A man **driving**; Snow **driven** by the wind.

404. Such nouns and adjectives as these differ from all others that are derived from verbs, since they may be formed from almost *any verb*; and, what is still more important to notice, they may have *the same modifiers* that verbs have. Thus:—

(1) The **nouns**, if derived from transitive verbs, may take an object. As in —

Driving fast horses is pleasant;

and they always may be modified by an adverb. As in —

I like **to drive slowly**.

Here **driving** and **to drive** are used as subject and object, respectively; but, like verbs, they express action as passing over to something else, or as going on in different ways.

(2) So with **adjectives**, we may say, —

“a man **beating a dog**,” or “a dog **cruelly beaten**.”

Here **beating** and **beaten** describe the man and the dog like adjectives, and are modified like verbs. There is no assertion in either expression, yet we think of the man as acting and of the dog as acted upon, as much as if a verb were used.

EXERCISE 242.

Find all the **verbal nouns** and **verbal adjectives**.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Horses drawing stone. | 6. Ducks shot by a hunter. |
| 2. Stone drawn by horses. | 7. To work is to win. |
| 3. To draw well requires skill. | 8. Telling lies hardens the heart. |
| 4. A good teacher of drawing. | 9. The house standing back from |
| 5. Ducks swimming in the lake. | the road. |

10. Fields ploughed in the early fall.
11. An empty boat carried over the falls.
12. A long-boat carrying several ship-wrecked passengers.
13. The habit of smoking tobacco or of playing with fire.
14. To waste in youth is to want in age.

405. The two nouns regularly formed from verbs are called **Infinitives**.

406. 1. The **first** infinitive is the root or simplest form of the verb, either with or without the sign **to** before it (§ 558); as,—

(to) **drive**, (to) **spin**, (to) **sleep**, (to) **walk**.

This is called the **root-infinitive**, or simply the **infinitive**.

2. The **second** infinitive is formed with the ending **ing**; as,—

driving, **spinning**, **sleeping**, **walking**.

This is called the **infinitive in ing**.¹ It is often treated in all respects like a noun (§ 184), having similar uses and modifiers. Thus:—

(Rapid) driving (in crowded streets) is dangerous.

EXERCISE 243.

1. Select the **infinitives**, and, if possible, tell how they are used.

1. These are wagons for carrying corn. 2. Writing letters is making signs. 3. Have you ever tried writing with your left hand?

¹ Or sometimes the "*gerund*." *To the Teacher*.—(1) The root-infinitive, with or without "to," is a noun, and is sprung from an old infinitive that in its inflected form was governed by the preposition "to."

The infinitive in "ing," judged by its use, is even more apparently a noun, and is sprung from a verbal noun that had no verbal uses and certainly no adjective uses.

Both infinitives are *abstract* nouns; e.g., *living* = *existence*.

(2) The participles are always adjectives in sense, and both are sprung from participles; but both *may* be used as *concrete* nouns like many other adjectives; e.g., *the living* = *those who have life*.

(3) The names *infinitive* and *participle*, like the names of all the parts of speech, are applied according to uses, not according to forms.

4. We ran to the rescue. 5. We ran to rescue them. 6. To write letters easily is an accomplishment. 7. He came to stay here for his health. 8. He has tried to walk without his crutches. 9. His physician forbade him to run after eating. 10. I desire to go. I wish to go. I will go.

2. Form the infinitives of any ten verbs.

3. Give the simplest form of the verbs from which the following words are derived. Tell which may be infinitives; i.e., which can take an object, or be modified by an adverb; and illustrate by using them in sentences.

laughter, laughing, to laugh; .
sailor, sailing;

to give, giving, giver, gift;
visit, visitor, visiting.

407. An Infinitive is a verbal noun that names the action or condition expressed by the verb, and takes the same complements and modifiers.

NOTE. The word "infinitive" means *infinite, unlimited*. It is applied to these forms because the idea of the verb is never limited as to person and number.

408. The two adjectives regularly formed from verbs are called **Participles**.

409. One participle describes a person or thing as *continuing* an action. It is called the **active** or **imperfect participle**, and always ends in **ing**; as,—

driving, spinning, sleeping, walking.

410. The other participle is called the **passive** or **perfect participle**, because what it describes is regarded either (a) as *having received the action* expressed by the verb; as in—

Threads are **spun**, Cattle are **driven**;

or else (b) as *having completed* some action; as in—

One who has **walked** or **slept**.

This participle usually ends in **t, d, or n**.

NOTE. The names **present** and **past** are also used: but see page 267, *note*.

EXERCISE 244.

Select the **participles**. Tell from what verb each is derived, what each describes, and what its modifiers are.

A fisherman leaving the shore pulled out to the sunken reef in a boat kept for his use. Hearing a ship pounding on the rocks, he rowed till he could see the crew bound or clinging half-frozen to the shattered masts. They were partly hidden by the fog, and partly by patches of torn sails.

411. A *Participle* is a verbal adjective. It shares or *participates* in the nature of a verb and of an adjective.

412. These verbal nouns and adjectives are given along with other verb-forms, because —

- (1) They are made from almost every verb ;
- (2) Most verb-phrases are formed by help of them ; and —
- (3) They take the same kind of complements and modifiers that verbs take.

CONJUGATION.

413. When we put together all the different forms of a verb, we have what is called the **Conjugation** of it.

414. We shall find that there are commonly but *seven* or *eight* changes made in the verb by inflection. In the verbs **wait** and **give**, for instance, we use the simple forms —

- (1) **Wait** and **give**, as infinitive, as imperative, as present tense of the indicative and subjunctive ;

We substitute —

- (2) **Waits** and **gives** in the present indicative with *third-singular* subjects ;
- (3) **Waited** and **gave** as past tense ;
- (4) **Waiting** and **giving** as the second infinitive and as the imperfect or active participle ;

(5) **Waited** (like the past tense) and **given** as the perfect or passive participle.

Besides these we have the solemn or poetical forms, —

(6) **Waitest** and **givest**, in the present indicative, with the subject *thou*;

(7) **Waitedst** and **gavest**, in the past indicative, with the subject *thou*; and —

(8) **Waiteth** and **giveth**, in the present indicative, with a *third-singular* subject.

415. Rules for Spelling. I. *The third-singular form of the present indicative is made by adding s to the root-form, or es, when needed for the sound. If the verb ends in y after a consonant, y is changed to i, and es is added. [See §§ 192, 193.] As, —*

Make, makes; go, goes; wish, wishes; defy, defies.

EXCEPTION. Have becomes has (not *haves*).

II. *Silent e is dropped before the suffixes ed, ing, etc. As, —*

Hope, hoped, hoping, hopest, hopeth.

EXCEPTIONS. *Hoe, shoe, toe, dye, singe, and tinge* retain the *e* before *ing*. *Die* becomes *dying*; *have* becomes *had* (not *haved*).

III. *Monosyllables, and dissyllables accented on the second syllable, if they end in a single consonant after a single vowel, double the final consonant before er, ed, ing, etc. As, —*

Sad, sadder, saddest; hop, hopped, hopping; refer, referred.

IV. *To verbs ending in ic, k is added before all endings but s. As, —*

Traffic, trafficked, trafficking.

EXERCISE 245.

Write in columns the five common forms of these verbs. Thus:—

Root.	S-form.	Past Tense.	Imperf. Part.	Perf. Part.
try,	tries,	tried,	trying,	tried.
rob,	robs,	robbed,	robbing,	robbed.

[See page 202 for forms that you do not know.]

Omit; do; carpet; dry; defer; wrap; befit; submit; behave; echo; differ; bar; benefit; live; merit; ship; glorify; have; equip; regret; save; slap; concur; gaze; search; quit; compel; gossip; singe.

Conjugation of the Irregular Verb BE.

416. The verb **be** not only keeps many of the old forms, but is really made up of three different verbs, — the infinitives and participles **be, being, been**, from one root; the present tense **am, are**, etc., from another; and the past **was, were**, from a third. Thus:—

<i>Indicative</i> .	{	<i>Present</i>	{	am , with <i>I</i> as subject.
				art , with <i>thou</i> as subject.
				is , with any <i>third-singular</i> subject.
				are , with <i>you</i> , or any <i>plural</i> subject.
	{	<i>Past</i> . .	{	was , with any <i>singular</i> subject ; — not with “ <i>thou</i> ” nor “ <i>you</i> .”
				wast or wert , with <i>thou</i> as subject.
				were , with <i>you</i> , or any <i>plural</i> subject.
<i>Subjunctive</i> {	{	<i>Present</i> . .	be .	<i>Imperative</i> be .
		<i>Past</i> . . .	were .	
<i>Infinitives</i> . {	{	(<i>to</i>) be .		<i>Imperfect Participle</i> being .
		being .		<i>Perfect Participle</i> been .

EXERCISE 246.

1. Fill the blanks with the proper *present* indicative forms of **be**.

I — well.	We — well.	She — well.
Thou — well.	You — well.	One — well.
He — well.	They — well.	Some — well.

2. Fill the blanks with the proper *past* indicative forms of **be**.

I — absent.	We — absent.	The king — present.
You — absent.	They — absent.	The princes — present.
He — absent.	Roy — present.	Many — present.
She — absent.	Boys — present.	Thou — present.

417. Most verbs have *seven* inflected forms, only *four* of which are in common use. These verbs are conjugated like **wait**, as follows:—

Conjugation of WAIT.

Indicative .	{	Present	{	wait.	
			{	waits (or waiteth), with a <i>third-singular</i> subject only. (waiteſt, with <i>thou</i> as subject.)	
		Past . .	{	waited.	
			{	(waitedſt, with <i>thou</i> as subject.)	
Subjunctive	{	Present . .	wait.	Imperative	wait.
		Past . . .	waited.		
Infinitives .	{	(to)	wait.	Imperfect Participle	waiting.
			waiting.	Perfect Participle	waited.

418. Some verbs have *eight* or *nine* inflected forms, *three* of which are seldom used. These verbs are conjugated like **give**.

Conjugation of GIVE.

Indicative .	{	Present	{	give.	
			{	gives (or giveth), with a <i>third-singular</i> subject only. (giveſt, with <i>thou</i> as subject.)	
		Past . .	{	gave.	
			{	(gaveſt, with <i>thou</i> as subject.)	
Subjunctive	{	Present . .	give.	Imperative	give.
		Past . . .	gave.		
Infinitives .	{	(to)	give.	Active Participle	giving.
			giving.	Passive Participle	given.

419. Regular and Irregular Verbs. We see that the two verbs **wait** and **give** are changed in different ways. The past tense and the perfect participle of **wait** are formed *alike*, that is by adding **ed**. Thus:—

wait, waiteċ, waited.

But in **give** these two parts are *unlike*, being formed without the use of **ed**. Thus:—

give, gave, given.

Elsewhere the changes are the same, and in order to conjugate any verb we commonly need to know only how these two forms are made.

420. Most verbs¹ form the past tense and the perfect participle by adding **d** or **ed** to the root, and are called **Regular Verbs**. All other verbs are called **Irregular**.² For example:—

	ROOT- INF.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.		ROOT- INF.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.
<i>Regular</i> {	wait,	wait ed ,	wait ed .	<i>Irregular</i> {	give,	gave,	given.
	live,	lived,	lived.		fall,	fell,	fallen.

421. These three forms, the **root-infinitive**, the **past tense**, and the **perfect participle**, are called the **Principal Parts** of the verb, because when they are known, the whole conjugation of the verb can be given.

422. Double Forms. Some verbs have *both regular and irregular forms* for the past tense, or for the perfect participle, or for both. Sometimes these forms differ in meaning, and frequently in use, but generally either may be used.

¹ All but about two hundred of the thousands of verbs in the language.

² *To the Teacher.*—Though for convenience we may distinguish verbs as “regular” and “irregular,” it is proper and useful to bear in mind the genuine classification of them into—(I.) *Verbs of the New Conjugation* (comprising all that are “regular” and some that are “irregular”) in which the past tense and the perfect participle ordinarily add **ed**, **d**, or **t**, but have in some cases been changed for ease of utterance; and—(II.) *Verbs of the Old Conjugation* (all called “irregular”), which after a **change of vowel sound** for the past tense, and after the addition of **en** or **n** for the participle, have often undergone euphonic changes.

The first class includes all new verbs, and some others. Verbs of the second class, designated by heavy type in the list (p. 202), all belong to the oldest stage of the language.

List of Irregular Verbs.

423. [Forms now out of use or rare are as a rule omitted. Otherwise the list contains all verb-forms of the old conjugation printed in *bold-faced* type, and all irregular forms of the new conjugation printed in *plain* type. Where only part of the forms are irregular, the regular forms are given too.]

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
Abide	abode	abode	Cleave ¹	clove	cloven
Awake	awoke		<i>[epit]</i>	cleft	cleft
	awaked	awaked	Cling	clung	clung
Be (pres. am)	was	been	Clothe	clothed	clothed
			Come	came	come
			Cost	cost	cost
Bear	bore	borne	Creep	crept	crept
	bare	born	Crow	crew	—
		<i>[brought forth]</i>		crowed	crowed
Beat	beat	beaten	Cut	cut	cut
Begin	began	begun			
Bend	bent	bent		dared	dared
Bereave	bereft	bereft	Dare	durst	<i>[ventured]</i>
Beseech	besought	besought	Deal	dealt	dealt
Bet	betted	betted	Dig	dug	dug
	bet	bet		digged	digged
Bid	bade	bidden	Do	did	done
	bid	bid	Draw	drew	drawn
Bind	bound	bound	Dream	dreamed	dreamed
Bite	bit	bitten		dreamt	dreamt
Bleed	bled	bled	Drink	drank	drunk
Blend	blended	blended	Drive	drove	driven
	blent	blent	Dwell	dwelt	dwelt
Bless	blessed	blessed		dwelled	dwelled
		blest	Eat	ate	eaten
Blow	blew	blown	Fall	fell	fallen
Break	broke	broken	Feed	fed	fed
Breed	bred	bred	Feel	felt	felt
Bring	brought	brought	Fight	fought	fought
Build	built	built	Find	found	found
	buildied	buildied	Flee	fled	fled
Burn	burned	burned	Fling	flung	flung
	burnt	burnt	Fly	flew	flown
Burst	burst	burst	Forget	forgot	forgotten
Buy	bought	bought		forgot	forgot
			Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Can	could	—	Freeze	froze	frozen
Cast	cast	cast			
Catch	caught	caught	Get	got	got
					gotten
Chide	chid	chidden	Gild	gilded	gilded
		chid			gilt
Choose	chose	chosen			

¹ Cleave, meaning *adhere*, is regular.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
Gird	{ girded girt	{ girded girt	Pay	paid	paid
Give	{ gave [went]	{ given gone	Pen	{ penned pent	{ penned pent,
Go	—	—	Put	put	put
Grave	{ — graved	{ — graved	Quit	{ quit quitted	{ quit quitted
Grind	ground	ground	—	quoth	—
Grow	grew	grown	Read	read	read
Hang ¹	hung	hung	Rend	rent	{ rent rended
Have	had	had	Rid	rid	rid
Hear	heard	heard	Ride	rode	ridden
Heave	{ hove heaved	{ hoven heaved	Ring	rang	rung
Hew	{ hewed —	{ hewed hewn	Rise	rose	risen
Hide	hid	{ hidden hid	Rive	{ — rived	{ riven rived
Hit	hit	hit	Run	ran	run
Hold	held	held	Saw	sawed	{ sawed sawn
Hurt	hurt	hurt	Say	said	said
Keep	kept	kept	See	saw	seen
Kneel	{ knelt kneeled	{ knelt kneeled	Seek	sought	sought
Knit	{ knit knitted	{ knit knitted	Sell	sold	sold
Know	knew	known	Send	sent	sent
Lade	laded	{ laded laden	Set	set	set
Lay	laid	laid	Shake	shook	shaken
Lead	led	led	Shall	should	—
Leap	{ leaped leapt	{ leaped leapt	Shape	shaped	{ shaped shapen
Learr	{ learned learnt	{ learned learnt	Shave	shaved	{ shaved shaven
Leave	left	left	Shear	sheared	{ sheared shorn
Lend	lent	lent	Shed	shed	shed
Let	let	let	Shine	{ shone shined	{ shone shined
Lie	lay	lain	Shoe	shod	shod
Lose	lost	lost	Shoot	shot	shot
Make	made	made	Show	{ showed shut	{ shown showed
May	might	—	Shred	shred	shred
Mean	meant	meant	Shrink	{ shrank shrunk	{ shrunk shrunk
Meet	met	met	Shrive	{ shrived shut	{ shriven shut
Mow	mowed	{ mowed mown	Sing	{ sang sung	{ sung sung
Must	—	—	Sink	sank	sunk
Ought	—	—	Sit	sat	sat
Pass	passed	{ passed past	Slay	slew	slain

¹ Hang, meaning *cause death*, is regular.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
Sleep	slept	slept	String	strung	strung
Slide	slid	{ slidden slid	Strive	strove	striven
Sling	alung	{ alung	Strow	{ strowed	{ strown
Slink	slunk	{ slunk	Swear	sware	sworn
Slit	slit	slit	Sweat	{ sweat sweated	{ sweat sweated
Smell	{ smelled	{ smelled	Sweep	swept	swept
Smite	smote	smitten	Swell	{ swelled	{ swollen
Sow	sowed	{ sowed sown	Swim	swam	swum
Speak	{ spoke spake	{ spoken	Swing	swung	swung
Speed	sped	sped	Take	took	taken
Spell	{ spelled	{ spelled	Teach	taught	taught
Spend	{ spelt	{ spelt	Tear	tore	torn
Spill	{ spent	{ spent	Tell	told	told
Spin	{ spilled	{ spilled	Think	thought	thought
Spit	{ spilt	{ spilt	Thrive	{ thrive thrived	{ thriven thrived
Split	{ spun	{ spun	Throw	threw	thrown
Spoil	{ spit	{ spit	Thrust	thrust	thrust
Spread	{ spat	{ spat	Tread	trod	{ trodden trod
Spring	{ split	{ split	Wake	{ waked woke	waked
Stand	{ spoiled	{ spoiled	Wear	wore	worn
Stave	{ spoilt	{ spoilt	Weave	wove	woven
Steal	{ staved	{ staved	Weep	wept	wept
Stick	{ stove	{ stove	Wet	wet	wet
Sting	{ stole	{ stolen	Will ¹	would	—
Stink	{ stuck	{ stuck	Win	won	won
Strew	{ stung	{ stung	Wind	wound	wound
Stride	{ stank	{ stank	Wit	wist	—
Strike	{ stunk	{ stunk	Work	{ worked wrought	{ worked wrought
	{ strewn	{ strewn	Wring	wrung	wrung
	{ stridden	{ stridden	Write	wrote	written
	{ struck	{ struck			
	{ stricken	{ stricken			

EXERCISE 247.

1. I — it now. 2. I — it yesterday. 3. I have — it to-day.

Fill the blanks with the principal parts of the following verbs:—

Bear; beat; begin; bite; blow; break; bring; buy; catch; choose; do; draw; drink; drive; eat; find; forget; forsake; freeze; give; have; hide; know; lay; leave; make; mean; rend; ride; ring; see; seek; set; shake; show; slay; smite; sow; speak; spin; spring; strike; take; throw; weave; wear; wring; write.

¹ Will, meaning *bequeath*, is regular.

EXERCISE 248.

1. They may —. 2. They — yesterday. 3. They had already —.

Use the principal parts of the following verbs to fill the blanks:—

Become; bid; come; crow; fall; flee; fly; grow; lie; rise; raise; shine; shrink; sing; sit; slide; stand; steal; stride; strive; swear; swim; think; tread.

D. VERB-PHRASES.

SUBSTITUTES FOR INFLECTED FORMS.

424. English verbs have no changes in *form* other than those already mentioned. In some languages, the number of forms is much greater; but in English, all other variations in time, and so on, must be expressed in a round-about way by what are called *Verb-phrases*.

425. *Verb-phrases* are made by using some root-infinitive or participle as the complement of another verb. As,—

He | will go. They | have waited. She | may write.
It | is coming. It | was built.

426. The verbs that are used with infinitives and participles merely to make verb-phrases, are called **Auxiliary** (i.e., *helping*) verbs.

427. The Principal Parts of the Auxiliary verbs are,—

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE
shall	should	—	must	—	—
will	would	—	do	did	done
may	might	—	be	was	been
can	could	—	have	had	had

(a) The indicative forms used in the solemn or poetic style, with *thou* as subject, are, —

PRESENT.	PAST.	PRESENT.	PAST.
shalt	shouldst	canst	couldst
wilt	wouldst	dost, doest	didst
mayest } mayst }	mightest	art	wast, wert
		hast	hadst

1. FUTURE TENSE.

Phrases made with SHALL and WILL.

428. When we wish to predict that anything is to happen in time to come, we say, —

I *shall take*; He *will take*; ¹

using the present tense of “shall” and of “will” to help us in expressing the idea of *taking* as future.

If we take the phrases apart, the real meaning will be, —

I *am obliged* to take; He *intends taking*, or *resolves to take*;
for I *shall* really means I *owe*, and I *will* means I *resolve*.

429. *Future Tense-phrases* are formed with *shall* or *will* and a root-infinitive, and denote future time.

430. The parts of any verb-phrase may be separated by other words; as in —

He <i>will</i> not go.	We <i>shall</i> , in all probability, fail.
Will she not sing?	Shall you and your friends remain?

431. By carefully choosing between the different uses of *shall* and *will* (§ 468), we can make future phrases that will *promise*, instead of predict.

¹ Do not think that “take” is the real verb here: “shall” or “will” is the verb, and the infinitive “take” is the object of it. The phrase that they together make is called the *future tense of the indicative*; for the auxiliaries have lost much of their original meaning, and are now little more than *signs* of the future tense.

EXERCISE 249.

Make sentences, using the **future tense** of each of these forms: —

Went; caught; drove; blown; hid; trod; rejoiced; sang; sprung; said; lied; lain; came; flew; flow.

2. POTENTIAL FORMS.

MAY, CAN, and MUST used as Auxiliaries.

432. **May, can, and must** are used with root-infinitives to make what are called **Potential** phrases, that express what is *possible, conditional, or obligatory*.

May implies *permission*, **can** implies *ability* or *power*, **must** implies *obligation* or *necessity*; but, as they often lose their proper meaning and become mere auxiliaries, they are given as parts of the conjugation of the verb that they help.

433. The present forms **may, can, and must** generally give a *present* meaning. Thus: —

You **may** go; *i.e.*, you have *permission* to go.

We **can** give; *i.e.*, we are *able* to give.

The engine **can** draw the train; *i.e.*, it *has the power* to draw it.

I **must** go; *i.e.*, I am *obliged* to go.

It **must** be sold; *i.e.*, the sale of it is *necessary*.

434. **May** and **can** sometimes have a *future* or *subjunctive* meaning; as in —

You **may** slip = perhaps you *will* slip.

I shall come if I **can**; *i.e.*, if it *be* possible.

435. The past forms **might** and **could** may give a *past* meaning to the phrase; as in —

He **could** not wait = he *was* not able to wait;

Or they may give a *subjunctive* meaning as of something merely thought of. Thus :—

If he were here, he **could** not wait.

He **might** be useful, though hard to manage.

436. **Should**, the past tense of “shall,” is sometimes used with a present meaning to denote a duty or obligation; as in —

You **should** do as you are bidden. [See § 472.]

437. *Potential Phrases* denote permission, power, obligation, or necessity, and are formed by using the root-infinitive with *may, can, must, might, could, would, or should*.

EXERCISE 250.

Using the infinitive of each of the following words, **make sentences containing potential phrases**, and tell whether they denote *permission, power, obligation, etc.* :—

Speak; borne; broken; chid; drew; feel; sat; froze; slain; shod; smote; swung; swept; thrust; raised; rose.

3. PERFECT TENSES.

HAVE as an Auxiliary.

438. I. Present Perfect. Whenever we wish to speak of an action as *completed at the present time*, we say, —

not “I buy it to-day,” but “I **have bought** it to-day,”

using the present tense of the auxiliary **have**, and the **perfect participle** of some verb. So, too, —

The town **has grown** this year.

It **has occurred** twice this century.

439. II. Past Perfect. In speaking of an action as *completed at some definite past time*, we use the past form **had** with the **perfect participle**. Thus :—

They **had gone** before I arrived.

440. III. Future Perfect. If we wish to speak of an action as already finished or *completed* at some *future* time, we use the future tense, **shall** or **will have**, with the **perfect participle**, and say, —

The sun **will have risen** before our arrival.

441. Phrases that denote **completed** or **perfected actions** are called *Perfect Tenses*, and are formed by combining the perfect participle of any verb with the various tenses of *have*.

442. Thus almost any of the forms that we have studied may be made perfect. For example: —

Simple Infinitive, (to) **do**; *Perfect Infinitive*, (to) **have done**.

Potential: Present, I **may go**; *Present Perfect*, I **may have gone**.

443. We see then that by inflection and by the use of auxiliaries we form **six tenses**; namely, —

Present,	Past,	Future,
Present Perfect,	Past Perfect,	Future Perfect.

EXERCISE 25I.

Tell whether the verb shows present, past, or future time, and give the corresponding **perfect** form of that tense; *i.e.*, the **perfect tense-phrase**: —

1. He sings well. 2. He wrote yesterday. 3. They will go tomorrow. 4. They could not wait. 5. They should obey their parents. 6. She had an instructor. 7. We shall set out on his return. 8. Can it be true? 9. What could he answer? 10. Would he welcome you?

4. PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASES.

BE as an Auxiliary.

444. To express what is customary or habitual, we use the simpler forms of the verb; as, —

She **paints**. He **studied** law. They **will preach**;

but to represent an action as *continuing* or actually *in progress*, we use still another form of phrase. Thus:—

She **is painting**. He **was studying** law. They **will be preaching**.

Here the verb **be** has for its complement not an ordinary adjective, but the imperfect or active participle of the verb, and the two together make what is called a **Progressive phrase**.

445. To make a *Progressive Verb-phrase* we use the active participle of any verb as complement of the proper tense of *be*.

All the preceding forms and tenses may be made progressive. Thus:—

He may or should **try**; he may or should **be trying**.
They have or had **tried**; they have or had **been trying**.

EXERCISE 252.

Change these verbs to **progressive verb-phrases**:—

- | | | |
|-----------------|------------------|---------------------|
| 1. She goes. | 4. It rises. | 7. You may walk. |
| 2. They dye. | 5. Shall you go? | 8. Can he have sat? |
| 3. Must you go? | 6. I will wait. | 9. Study. |

5. EMPHATIC VERB-PHRASES.

Do as an Auxiliary.

446. Instead of the simple present or past “He tries,” “I tried,” “Try,” we may say more emphatically,—

He **does try**, I **did try**, **Do try**;

using the verb **do**, and the infinitive “try” as the object of it. Here **do** seems to have lost its ordinary meaning,

perform, and serves only as an auxiliary to make an **Emphatic** form of the verb **try**.

447. When we ask or deny, as in **interrogative** or **negative** sentences, these phrases are almost always used instead of the simple forms. Thus, we usually say,—

Does he try? **Did** I try? He **does** not try. I **did** not try. (Not “Tries he? Tried I? He tried not, etc.”)

EXERCISE 253.

Change the following expressions to the **emphatic**, the **negative**, and the **interrogative** forms:—

1. They learn. 2. We make hats. 3. They settled the country.
4. The plan works well. 5. Their journey ended. 6. He had courage. 7. Time brings changes. 8. We drew the sword.

6. PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES.

Forms of BE as Auxiliaries.

EXERCISE 254.

1. In each sentence tell the word that shows who or what *performs* the action. 2. Tell the word that shows who or what *receives* the action, or is affected by it. 3. Select each subject that represents the *actor*. 4. Select those subjects that name the *receiver* of the action. 5. What difference do you notice in the *meaning* of each two sentences? 6. In their *form*?

1. { The breeze *fills* the sails.
 { The sails **are filled** by the breeze.
2. { We *celebrated* the victory.
 { The victory **was celebrated** by us.
3. { Messengers *will carry* the news.
 { The news **will be carried** by messengers.
4. { The government *should protect* the Indians.
 { The Indians **should be protected** by the government.
5. { Congress *has enacted* a new tariff law.
 { A new tariff law **has been enacted** by Congress.

448. All the verb-forms that we have thus far studied belong to what is called the *active voice*, — that is, all of them represent what the subject names as *acting*, and not as *acted upon*, — and as there is no single form in English that has a passive meaning, we are forced to use still another kind of phrase.

449. We know that the perfect participle of transitive verbs may always have a passive meaning ; as, —

driven, spoken, hired ;

and if we use this participle as an adjective complement with different tenses of the verb *be* ; as in —

I am driven, It was spoken, You will be hired,

we form verb-phrases which represent what the subject names, not as *acting*, but as *acted upon*, and which are therefore called **Passive verb-phrases**.

450. *Passive verb-phrases* are made by using a passive participle with the various tenses of *be*, so as to represent what the subject names as receiving the action.

451. In this way any kind of verb-phrases, except the progressive, may be made passive. Thus : —

“I may see,” or “I may **be seen**.”

“They might have stopped,” or “They might have **been stopped**.”

And even progressive phrases are sometimes found in the passive form. As in —

The prisoner **was being tried** for theft.

The question **is being** very thoroughly **discussed**.

452. Active and passive forms, or “voices,” express the same thought when the **object** of the *active* form is made the **subject** of the corresponding *passive* form. Thus : —

He *heals* the **sick**. = The **sick** *are healed* by him.

Metals *are expanded* by heat. = Heat *expands* **metals**.

(a) The active form brings the *actor* into prominence; the passive, the *receiver* of the action. The passive form is generally used when the actor can not or need not be named. As, —

The watch was stolen. Lost opportunities cannot be regained.

453. A few intransitive verbs, that, in the active form, are followed by a *preposition and its object*, are sometimes made passive. In such cases the preposition, as an adverbial modifier, becomes almost a part of the verb, and its former object becomes the subject of the passive phrase. [See § 522.] Thus:—

No one **had thought of this**. This **had not been thought of**.

Our friends **laughed at us**. We **were laughed at by them**.

EXERCISE 255.

Change each verb in these sentences into either the passive or the active form, without changing the meaning:—

1. The engine draws the train. 2. The story has been told by several writers. 3. England taxed the colonies unjustly. 4. Louisiana was sold by France in 1803. 5. Marco Polo tells us strange stories. 6. The Mississippi was discovered by De Soto in 1541. 7. The prudent never waste time nor money. 8. The mortgage will be foreclosed by the executor. 9. Fire has destroyed the poor man's house. 10. Gold is purchased for coinage by the government. 11. Every patriot will defend the flag. 12. Friendship should be strengthened by adversity. 13. Would he believe the truth? 14. Paris had been besieged by the Prussians in 1871. 15. Heaven is not mounted to on wings of dreams. 16. Somebody will probably attend to the matter. 17. Will any one interfere with his rights?

454. If we add to the inflected forms of a verb the various phrases that are based upon it, we shall have what may be called the **Complete Conjugation of a Verb**.

The following tables present *at one view* all the common forms and phrases of a verb. Any verb may be conjugated by substituting its inflected forms for those of *drive*.

CONJUGATION OF Drive.

		COMMON FORMS.		PROGRESSIVE AND PASSIVE PHRASES.	
		TENSES.		Tenses of Be.	Participles.
INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE MOODS.	INDICATIVE FORMS.	<i>Present.</i>	drive or drives (driveth)	am, is, or are	driving (progressive) driven (passive)
		<i>Past.</i>	drove (drovest)	was or were	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		<i>Future.</i>	shall will drive	shall will	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		<i>Present Perfect.</i>	have driven has	have has	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		<i>Past Perfect.</i>	had driven	had	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		<i>Future Perfect.</i>	shall have driven will	shall will	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
IMP. MOOD.	POTENTIAL PHRASES.	<i>Present.</i>	may, can, or must drive	may, can, or must be	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		<i>Past.</i>	might, could, would, or should drive	might, could, would, or should be	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		<i>Present Perfect.</i>	may have driven can must	may have been can must	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		<i>Past Perfect.</i>	might have driven could would should	might have been could have been would should	driving (pro.) driven (pass.)
		<i>Present.</i>	drive	be driving (pro.); were driving (pro.); be driving (pro.);	be driven (pass.) were driven (pass.) be driven (pass.)
		<i>Past.</i>	drove		
		<i>Present.</i>	drive		

EXERCISE 256.

1. Tell the **tense, mood, and form** of each verb-phrase. Thus:—

"May have gone" is a present perfect potential phrase of the verb *go*.

"Should be brought" is a past potential passive of the verb *bring*.

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. I will go. | 12. I should have gone. |
| 2. Do go quickly. | 13. She had been writing. |
| 3. They are lost. | 14. Prizes could have been won. |
| 4. If I were young —. | 15. The question has been settled. |
| 5. He might work. | 16. They are made in France. |
| 6. Do you sing? | 17. It is growing late. |
| 7. Can she sew? | 18. We should do right. |
| 8. He has done it. | 19. I wish he were going. |
| 9. Shall you be there? | 20. You may be trying it. |
| 10. They will have come. | 21. I would never sign it. |
| 11. We did not hear it. | 22. It had never been worn. |

2. Give the **composition** of each phrase; *i.e.*, tell of what verb-forms it is composed. Thus:—

"Would have been broken" is made up of the past *would*, the infinitive *have*, the perfect participle *been*, and the passive participle *broken*. [See § 458.]

EXERCISE 257.

Write the following-named forms of *bring, lay, tread, wear, obey, write, do, buy, have*:—

1. Present indicative progressive, third-singular.
2. Past indicative passive.
3. Future indicative (predict using "we" as subject).
4. Future perfect indicative passive.
5. Present perfect indicative progressive, third singular.
6. Past perfect potential passive.
7. Present indicative emphatic.
8. Past potential passive.
9. Present perfect indicative passive.
10. Present subjunctive.
11. Past subjunctive.

455. How to Parse a Verb. A verb or verb-phrase is parsed by telling its 1. *tense*; 2. *mood*; (3. *phrase-form*;) 4. *kind*; 5. *principal parts*; (6. *number-form*, if peculiar;) and 7. *subject*.

NOTE.—This order of statement though not material is a convenient one, since it presents the facts as they appear in the successive elements of a verb-phrase.

456. Forms for Parsing. [*To be varied at the option of the teacher.*]

1. [[When] (my) ship comes [in]] I shall be rich.
2. He spoke [loud] [that they might hear him.]
3. [After we had been drifting [three days]] (a) sail was seen.

comes is the *present indicative* of the *complete* verb “come, came, come”; *s*-form with the third-singular *subject* **ship**.

shall be is the *future indicative* of the *copulative* verb “be, was, been”; its *subject* is **I**.

spoke is the *past indicative* of the *complete* verb “speak, spoke, spoken”; its *subject* is **he**.

might hear is a *past potential*¹ of the *transitive* verb “hear, heard, heard”; its *subject* is **they**.

had been drifting is the *past perfect indicative progressive* of the *complete* verb “drift, drifted, drifted”; its *subject* is **we**.

was seen is a *past indicative passive* verb-phrase formed from the *transitive* verb “see, saw, seen”; **was** is used with the *third-singular* *subject* **sail**.

457. In written parsing the abbreviations on page 219 may be used. Thus:—

comes = pr. ind. of com. V. “come, came, come”; *s*-form with 3d sing. S. **ship**.

shall be = f. ind. of cop. V. “be, was, been”; S. **I**.

spoke = pt. ind. of com. V. “speak, spoke, spoken”; S. **he**.

might hear = pt. pot. of tr. V. “hear, heard, heard”; S. **they**.

had been drifting = pt. pf. ind. pro. of com. V. “drift, drifted, drifted”; S. **we**.

was seen = pt. ind. pass. from the tr. V. “see, saw, seen”; **was** with 3d sing. S. **sail**.

¹ Potential phrases have sometimes a subjunctive and sometimes an indicative meaning; but it is not expected that all learners will discriminate between the two uses.

458. Verb-phrases may be analyzed as follows:—

might hear is made up of the *past auxiliary might* and the *root-infinitive hear*.

had been drifting is made up of the *past auxiliary had*, the *perfect participle been*, and the *imperfect participle drifting*.

was seen is made up of the *past auxiliary was* and the *passive participle seen*.

Analysis of Verb-phrases.

459. The verb-phrase — is made by uniting the —

(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)	
		root-infinitive					
pres. } past }	aux. —;	imperf.	} part. —;	imperf.	} part. —;	imperf.	} part. —.
		perfect		perfect		perfect	
		or		or		or	
		passive		passive		passive	

EXERCISE 258.

1. Parse the verbs in these sentences:—

1. Where shall you be? 2. It cannot be found. 3. How busy you are. 4. Go quickly to the rear. 5. Be careful how you speak. 6. The sun might have risen. 7. No one has yet seen it. 8. Would he go if he were I? 9. Were not the drums beating? 10. You should have gone at once. 11. The mill can never grind again with the water that is past. 12. We might have been called. 13. Nothing must be assumed. 14. The train will have gone before he arrives. 15. Could he have fled alone? 16. Is it rising now? 17. Did he write at your bidding? 18. Do not be discouraged by trifles. 19. Come ye in peace, or come ye in war? 20. Ask and it shall be given you. 21. Could it not have been found sooner? 22. I wish I were sailing the seas. 23. Have you had enough? 24. How do you do this morning? 25. He had had the money for a week. 26. I am expecting to see him soon. 27. Take heed lest he fall. 28. If he were going he would take it. 29. When he next doth ride abroad may I be there to see. 30. You could not have been listening or you would have heard me. 31. There never has been another such man. 32. Might it not have been done better?

2. Analyze each verb-phrase.

SUMMARY: FORM FOR PARSING VERBS.

460.

Forms.

TENSES.

MOODS AND PHRASES.

(1) is the	<div> <div>Present (<i>pr.</i>)</div> <div>Past (<i>pt.</i>)</div> <div>Future (<i>f.</i>)</div> <div>Pres. Perf. (<i>pr.pf.</i>)</div> <div>Past Perf. (<i>pt.pf.</i>)</div> <div>Fut. Perf. (<i>f.pf.</i>)</div> </div>	(2)	<div> <div>Indicative (<i>ind.</i>)</div> <div>Subjunctive (<i>sub.</i>)</div> <div>Imperative (<i>imp.</i>)</div> <div>Potential (<i>pot.</i>)</div> <div>Emphatic (<i>emph.</i>)</div> </div>
		(3)	<div> <div>Progressive (<i>pro.</i>)</div> <div>Passive (<i>pass.</i>)</div> </div>

Kinds.

PRIN. PARTS.

(4) Of (or from) the	<div> <div>Complete (<i>com.</i>)</div> <div>Copulative (<i>cop.</i>)</div> <div>Transitive (<i>tr.</i>)</div> </div>	Verb, (5)	<div> <div>— (Present)</div> <div>— (Past)</div> <div>— (Perf. Part.)</div> </div>
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Construction.

FORM FOR SUBJECT.

(6)

{

(common form) has for its subject —

s-form

solemn (**eth**) form

solemn (**est**) form with second-singular subject **thou**.

} with third-singular subject —.

461. Derivative and Compound Verbs are made —

(1) From *adjectives*, as **sweeten**; (2) from *nouns*, as **befriend**, **strengthen**; (3) from *other verbs*, as **misspell**, **repay**, **untie**, **dislike**; (4) by prefixing an *adverb* to an older *verb*, as **undergo**, **overthrow**, **foresee**.

E. ERRORS IN THE USE OF VERB-FORMS.

462. Wrong forms of the verb are very common. It is a prominent word, inflected more than any other part of speech, and hence leads one who is careless to make many conspicuous blunders.

463. Some of the very worst mistakes are made by substituting one of the principal parts for another.

For example: Having as principal parts, *pres. do, past did, perf. part. done*, we should say in stating a past fact, "He **did** the work," not "He **done** the work"; but in making a present perfect phrase we should say, "He **has done** the work," not "He **has did** the work."

464. Principal Parts confused. I. *Do not use the perfect participle as a substitute for the past tense.*

II. *Never use the past tense instead of a past participle in making a verb-phrase.*

EXERCISE 259.

Point out the error in each sentence, correct it, and give your reason. Thus:—

"The bell has been *rang*." Incorrect. *Rang* is the past tense: the participle *rung* should be used with *has been* in making a verb-phrase. Say "The bell has been *rung*."

"They *come* yesterday." Wrong. Do not use the perfect participle *come* as a substitute for the past tense *came*. The sentence should read, "They *came* yesterday."

1. Who **done** it? 2. Soon it had **sank** to rise no more. 3. The pears were all **shook** off by the wind. 4. This lace was **wove** in France. 5. He **run** all the way. 6. They **come** in late yesterday. 7. He soon **begun** to be weary. 8. Charles and I **swum** across the river. 9. I **seen** that yours was wrong. 10. He **has rose** from poverty to wealth. 11. Our club was never **beat** before. 12. If I had **been showed**, I should know how to do it. 13. She had **tore** it off.

EXERCISE 260.

Tell which form should be used here, and why:—

1. I (seen, saw) him yesterday. 2. You might have (chose, chosen) something better. 3. Our friends (come, came) last week. 4. You must do as you are (bid, bade, bidden). 5. Some (drank, drunk) too much. 6. What evil has (befallen, befel) them? 7. She may have (went, gone) to Europe. 8. Have you ever (sang, sung) this tune? 9. Have they (drank, drunk) it all? 10. Have they (broke, broken) out the roads yet?

EXERCISE 261.

Give the **principal parts** of the verb, tell which should be used, and why.

1. Have you never (*shrink*) from your duty? 2. She may have been (*smite*) down. 3. His signature was (*write*) indistinctly. 4. It cannot have been (*steal*). 5. You might have (*take*) more pains. 6. David (*sling*) the stone, and (*smite*) him on the forehead. 7. They have (*strive*) to do their best. 8. Intemperance has (*slay*) its thousands. 9. My directions were (*forget*). 10. The pond was (*freeze*) over. 11. Some one has (*break*) my pen.

465. Some verbs have somewhat similar forms that are liable to be confounded. Especial care must be taken in using them.

466. Verbs confused. *Do not use one verb for another of similar form but of different meaning.*

EXERCISE 262.

1. Learn the principal parts of these verbs, and their meaning:—

PRESENT.	PAST.	ACTIVE PART.	PERFECT PART.
lie (rest)	lay (rested)	lying (resting)	lain (rested)
lay (place)	laid (placed)	laying (placing)	laid (placed)
sit (rest)	sat (rested)	sitting (resting)	sat (rested)
set (place)	set (placed)	setting (placing)	set (placed)

2. Fill the blanks with the appropriate form of lie or lay, and its meaning. Thus:—

"I *laid* (or placed) it on the table, and there it *lies* (or rests)."

1. Where did you — it? 2. How long has it — there? 3. At what wharf does your yacht —? 4. It — on the grass yesterday. 5. It has — there for years. 6. They have — the corner-stone. 7. He — in bed till nine o'clock. 8. She has been — there all day. 9. The ship — to during the storm. 10. A thousand miles of pipe have been —.

11. She now — sleeping quietly. 12. We — over two days in Montreal. 13. — down, Bruno! 14. He — it carefully away in his safe, and there it has — ever since. 15. — it on the table, and let it — there. 16. They have been — new tracks. 17. Has it been — there long? 18. He was — by the brook. 19. The body — in state three days. 20. The city — on the left bank of the river.

3. Fill the following blanks with the appropriate form of **sit** or **set**, and its meaning:—

1. Come into the —-room. 2. The mother-bird is — in her nest. 3. We — out twelve elms last arbor-day. 4. Where did he —? 5. I — it on the shelf, and there it — now. 6. Won't you — here? 7. He — motionless for an hour. 8. I have been — in the arbor while you have been — out your plants. 9. The court will — in June. 10. Was he — there then?

467. Improper forms. *Never use any improper verb-forms; as, "drawed" for "drew."*

EXERCISE 263.

1. **Correct the errors** in these sentences, giving the reason for the change. Thus:—

"It *laid* for centuries undiscovered." Wrong. *Laid*, meaning "placed," is used where *lay*, meaning "rested," is required. Say "It *lay* for centuries undiscovered."

"The wind *blowed* all night." Wrong. There is no such form as *blowed*. Say "The wind *blew* all night."

1. He has overdrawed his account. 2. He threwed the ball swiftly. 3. His will had laid in his safe for years. 4. Have you heat the water? 5. Has the brook overflown its banks? 6. I knowed you would lay down. 7. When was the horse shoed last? 8. He ain't as wise as he appears. 9. The moon has lit us on our way. 10. I move that the motion lay on the table for one week. 11. Your coat doesn't set well (say *fit*).

2. Distinguish between (1) **born** and **borne**, (2) **durst** and **dared**, (3) **hung** and **hanged**, (4) **may** and **can**, and use the correct form in the following blanks:—

1. He was — in Ohio. He was — to his grave by his friends.
 2. The king — not sign the warrant. We — them to leap the brook.
 3. Nathan Hale was — as a spy. Have the pictures been securely —?
 4. — I shut the window. — you discover the reason?

468. Whether to use SHALL or WILL. The two auxiliaries used in making the future tense have somewhat different meanings.

469. I. Simply to foretell that something is going to happen, use *shall* with "I" or "we," and *will* with other subjects.
 Thus:—

We **shall** fail. I **shall** return in the spring.

You, he, they, etc., **will** find the journey tiresome.

470. II. To promise or to express a determination of the speaker, use *will* with "I" or "we," and *shall* with other subjects. Thus:—

We **will** help you. I **will** send the money.

She **shall** not go alone. They **shall** vacate the house at once.

EXERCISE 264.

Tell whether the auxiliary is used **to promise, to show determination, or simply to foretell**:—

1. I shall enter college next year. 2. I will have an education.
 3. My friends will help me. 4. Nothing shall stand in my way. 5. I shall answer his letter to-morrow. 6. The letter shall be answered at once. 7. I will walk; no one shall carry me. 8. I shall walk; no one will carry me. 9. You shall go with me, if you wish. 10. We will assist you at any time. 11. I shall be punished. He shall be punished. 12. Shall you attend the fair? Will you go with me?

471. III. In questions use the same auxiliary that would be correctly used in the reply. Thus:—

If we wish to exact a promise, like "I will wait" or "We will go,"

we ask, "**Will** you wait or go?" But if we wish one to predict a future action by saying "*I shall go*," we must ask, "**Shall** you go?"

EXCEPTION. *Will* is never used in a question with "*I*" or "*we*" as subject. Thus we say,—

"**Shall** I find you there?" not "**Will** I" etc.

"**Shall** we come early?" not "**Will** we" etc.

472. *Should* and *would* follow the same rules as "*shall*" and "*will*." Thus:—

I **should** not need your help, and, if I did, I **would** not ask it.

I asked him whether he **should** go or stay ("*Shall* you go or stay?"), and he said he **should** stay ("*I shall stay*").

He said that he **would** go ("*I will go*").

He feared lest he **should** fall. ("*I shall fall*").

EXERCISE 265.

Fill each blank with a form of **shall** or **will**, giving the rule that guides you.

1. We — expect to hear from you.
2. If I do not study, I — grow up in ignorance.
3. They — receive the money to-morrow.
4. I was afraid that I — lose my position.
5. We — be pleased to hear that he — soon return.
6. If you telegraph, we — come at once.
7. When — we call? When — you go with me?
8. I fear that we — have unpleasant weather.
9. Where — you be next week?
10. I — like to go to town, and — go if I could.
11. I — be delighted if you — call.
12. I — have been ill if I had gone.
13. — you do as he bids you? — you do what I ask?
14. — you have sold it for that price?
15. I — have asked for more time.

473. Subjunctive forms are peculiar only —

(1) In always omitting the endings *s*, *st*, *eth*, of the corresponding indicative ;

(2) In that **BE** is used in place of **am, art, is, or are**, and **WERE** in place of **was, wast, or wert**.

474. Present Subjunctive forms are now used chiefly in clauses expressing a supposition or a condition to be decided in the future. As in —

If he **ask** a pardon, shall you grant it?

If he **go**, he will not be missed.

In such clauses, indicative forms are also used by good writers and speakers.

475. Past Subjunctive forms must be used in clauses expressing a supposition or a wish contrary to the fact. As in —

If he **were** ready (but he is not), he could go.

I wish I **were** well (but I am not).

(a) Indicative forms must be used to express what is *assumed as a fact*. As in —

If he **intends** to go, he should go now.

Though he **is** far from well, he is industrious.

If he **was** poor, he was honest.

EXERCISE 266.

Select what seems the appropriate form of the verb, and give the reason for your choice.

1. What would you say if you (was, were) asked? 2. I wish I (were, was) ten years younger. 3. If the book (be, is) in the library, you may take it. 4. If the book (was, were) in the library, you might take it. 5. O that it (was, were) possible! 6. If he (were, was) needy, we should help him. 7. Though he (be, are, is) needy, he will get no help. 8. If he (is, be) insane, his actions do not show it. 9. If I (was, were) to be defeated, I should still persevere. 10. It would be a great disgrace if he (was, were) to fail. 11. I will come to-morrow if the weather (is, be) fine. 12. I will call upon him if he (be, is) now at home. 13. Take care lest it (is, are, be) injured.

14. I should not go unless I (was, were) prepared. 15. If that (be, is) the case, I will go. 16. I shall induce him to take it, whether he (wish, wishes) it or not. 17. Wait until the truth (is, be) known. 18. Take care that nothing (is, be) lost.

Errors in the Use of the *s*-form of Verbs.

476. We have learned that the *s*-form of verbs is never used except in the present tenses of the indicative mood, with subjects that in meaning are of the third person and of the singular number.

477. General Rule. *A third-singular subject, and no other, requires the s-form of the verb.*¹

478. Was. *Use was with "I" or a third-singular subject, and never with "you" or any plural subject.*

EXERCISE 267.

Point out the errors in the following sentences, and correct them, giving your reason. Thus:—

"He don't try." Wrong. The third-singular subject "he" requires *does*, the *s*-form of the verb *do*. Say, instead, "He *doesn't* try."

"There has never been many of that kind." Wrong. *Has*, the *s*-form of *have*, is used with "many," a subject not third-singular. The sentence should read, "There never *have* been many," etc. **RULE:** A third-singular subject, and *no other*, requires the *s*-form of the verb.

1. Neither of them were correct.
2. From that source comes all our troubles.
3. It don't take long to cross the ocean.
4. Was you at the concert last night?
5. My scissors needs sharpening.
6. The memoranda is lost.
7. There has been many disappointments on this trip.
8. The fragrance of roses fill the air.
9. Each of the states have two senators.
10. Either of those reasons are sufficient.
11. Harder times never was seen.
12. The six days' work were ended.
13. What have become of your friends?
14. The meaning of these words are easily found.
15. Which of these fractions are the larger?
16. Every-

¹ It will be understood that this rule can apply only to the present indicative tenses.

body have offered us congratulations. 17. There is a few more to be had.

479. It is the meaning rather than the form of a subject that affects the form of the verb. For example, in the sentence —

The Three Clerks **was** written by Anthony Trollope, the subject is singular in meaning, for it names a single book.

480. 1. Collective nouns are generally singular in meaning. Thus: —

The **jury** renders its verdict. Our **regiment** loses its colonel.

Here we refer to the collection as a *whole* or *unit*, and the **s**-form of the verb is required.

2. Sometimes, however, we refer to actions of the *individuals* in the collection. Thus: —

The jury **have** returned to **their** homes.

The regiment **hold** different opinions of him.

Here the meaning is plural, and the **s**-form of the verb would be wrong.

481. *Collective Subjects require the s-form of the verb only in referring to the collection as a unit.*

EXERCISE 268.

Tell which form of the verb should be used here, and give your reason: —

1. The army (was or were) nearly annihilated. 2. The band (has or have) brought (its or their) instruments. 3. (Is or are) your family well? 4. The committee (was or were) unanimous in the choice. 5. The fleet (was or were) separated. 6. The whole herd ran into the sea and (was or were) drowned. 7. Our club (hold or holds) (its or their) meetings every month. 8. (Have or has) the company broken up? 9. A large number (was or were) dissatisfied. 10. The number present (were or was) large. 11. The mob (have or has) dis-

persed. 12. The committee (has or have) made (its or their) report. 13. Half the population (consist or consists) of blacks. 14. Grant's *Memoirs* (has or have) had a large sale. 15. *The Virginians* (was or were) written by Thackeray. 16. The audience which — large (was or were) soon seated.

Connected Subjects.

482. Singular expressions joined by **and** are generally taken together as a plural subject. Thus :—

He and I are going. *Industry and perseverance win* success.
Making laws and enforcing them are very different.

483. *Subjects joined by AND. Use the s-form of the verb with singular subjects connected by and—*

only (1) *When they name the same person or thing ;*
 or (2) *When they are preceded by each, every, many a, or no.*

For example :—

- (1) *My friend and helper has* deserted me.
- (1) *A wheel and axle transmits* the power.
- (2) *Each lady and gentleman has* received a copy.
- (2) *Every city and town was* visited.

484. *Subjects joined by OR or NOR. Use the s-form of the verb with third-singular subjects connected by or or nor.*

Thus :—

One or the other visits London annually.
Neither money nor influence was needed.

EXERCISE 269.

Select the proper form of the verb, and justify your selection.
 Thus :—

"Neither hope nor courage *remains*." The *s*-form is here required, for the subject consists of two singular nouns, "hope" and "courage," which are joined by *nor*, and hence are to be taken separately.

"Both hope and courage *are* needed." The *s*-form of the verb would be wrong, for the two nouns "hope" and "courage" joined by *and* make a plural subject.

"Every boy and girl *has* recited." The connected nouns "boy" and "girl" make a third-singular subject, for they are preceded by the adjective *every*, and so are to be taken separately. Hence the *s*-form of the verb is required.

1. In every muscle there (is, are) strength and vigor. 2. Every beggar and spendthrift (receive, receives) his aid. 3. Neither father nor mother (was, were) living. 4. Every word and even every thought (is, are) known. 5. Each day and hour (bring, brings) (its, their) duties. 6. The rise and fall of the tide (are, is) to be explained. 7. The butcher and the baker (has, have) sent in (his, their) (bill or bills). 8. There (is, are) fighting and bloodshed on the frontier. 9. A thousand dollars (are, is) too much to pay. 10. There (were, was) neither anger nor impatience in his tone. 11. To seem and to be (is, are) not always the same. 12. A beautiful poem or picture (has, have) a refining influence.

13. Whether to advance or to retreat (were, was) the question. 14. No pains and no expense (have, has) been spared. 15. Each hour, dark fraud or open rapine or protected murder (cry, cries) out against them. 16. Every leaf and flower (has, have) faded. 17. His subject and mine (was, were) the same. 18. There (sleep, sleeps) the soldier, statesman, and martyr. 19. Wave after wave (come, comes) rolling in. 20. Nor eye nor listening ear an object (find, finds). 21. How wonderfully (have, has) science and invention advanced. 22. Neither oil nor alcohol (are, is) as heavy as water.

485. *When subjects connected by or or nor differ in person or number, the one nearest the verb generally controls its form.* Thus:—

Neither she nor **I am** invited. Either you or **he knows** it.

Are you or he going? Neither he nor his **children were** saved.

Expressions like these may generally be avoided. Thus:—

She is not invited, nor **am I**.

486. *Of two subjects connected by as well as the first one controls the form of the verb that is expressed, and the second that of a verb understood.* Thus:—

The **captain**, as well as the crew, **was** lost.

The **crew**, as well as the captain, **were** sick.

487. *Of two subjects, one affirmative and the other negative, the affirmative one controls the form of the verb expressed, and the negative one that of a verb understood. Thus:—*

Not I but **he is** the one to go. Not he but **I am** going. The warriors, but not the chief, **were** present. Not only this habit, but all similar **ones are** pernicious.

488. *As a relative pronoun has no form for number or person, the sense of the antecedent controls the form of the verb. Thus:—*

"I that speak unto you **am** he." **"O Thou who changest** not!"
"Our Father who art in heaven."

EXERCISE 270.

Select the proper form of the verb, and give the rule that guides you.

1. Equity, as well as justice, (demand, demands) it. 2. One or more persons (was, were) injured. 3. His painting was one of the best that (was, were) exhibited. 4. Not the causes, but the result, (were, was) stated. 5. Neither the interests nor the honor of the nation (was, were) affected. 6. You or he (are, is) to go. 7. Either he or I (is, am) to go.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. What does the object of a transitive verb name? 2. Give two sentences, alike in meaning, in which the same word shall be used first as subject and then as object. 3. How many simple tenses has a verb? 4. In what mood is the *s*-form used? 5. How many inflected forms has *bring*? Mention them. 6. Which word in a verb-phrase shows its tense? 7. How does a present progressive verb-phrase differ in *form* from a present passive verb-phrase? 8. How in *meaning*? 9. What is the difference between "Can I go?" and "May I go?" 10. How must a passive verb-phrase be formed?

11. When is the *s*-form to be used? 12. When is the *s*-form used with two singular subjects? 13. With what kind of subjects is *was* never used? 14. When would you use *he* as the subject of *were*? 15. Why is "Will I be safe?" wrong? 16. When is *shall* to be used? 17. Use the past tenses of *lay* and *lie* in sentences.

CHAPTER XI.

ADVERBS.

[Review §§ 73-79.]

A. KINDS.

489. As to Meaning. There are many adverbs, and they modify in many different ways; yet they may all be divided, according to their *meaning*, into four principal classes:—

- | | |
|------------------------------|---|
| 1. Adverbs of Time. | As, <i>now, then, always, never, next, last.</i> |
| 2. Adverbs of Place. | As, <i>here, there, down, hence, above.</i> |
| 3. Adverbs of Manner. | As, <i>well, ill, thus, so, slowly, wisely, freely.</i> |
| 4. Adverbs of Degree. | As, <i>much, very, almost, too, scarcely, quite.</i> |

490. As to Use. With respect to their *use*, adverbs may be classified as **Simple** when they merely modify, and as **Conjunctive** when they also connect.

EXERCISE 271.

1. What is a clause? 2. What kinds of clauses have you studied?
3. What is an adjective clause? 4. What is a noun-clause? 5. What is a conjunctive pronoun? 6. A relative pronoun? 7. Give the meaning of *when, where, whence, whither, why, how*, in the form of a phrase.
8. Point out the adjective clauses in the following expressions, and tell what each modifies:—

1. The place on which they stood —.
2. The time at which they started —.
3. The town from which they came —.
4. The land to which they went —.
5. The reason for which they fled —

9. What does each prepositional phrase modify? 10. Substitute a single word for each phrase. 11. What does the substituted word modify? 12. To what part of speech does it therefore belong?

491. From the preceding Exercise we see that in *adjective clauses* certain adverbs may be used as the equivalent of a phrase made with a conjunctive pronoun and a preposition. Thus:—

This is the house **where** (in which) I was born.

Here, as we know, "which" would connect the clause to *house*, and "in which" would modify *was born* like an adverb; so its equivalent **where** does this double duty of modifying and connecting.

492. Adverbs like **when, where, whence, whither, why, how**, that both modify a verb and at the same time connect a clause, are called **Conjunctive** adverbs.

So with *wherewith, whereon, whereby*, and other compounds of *where* and a preposition.

(a) Conjunctive adverbs used in adjective clauses may be called *relative* adverbs.

EXERCISE 272.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Do you know who it is? | 4. Tell me what he wants. |
| 2. Do you know where it is? | 5. Tell me when he came. |
| 3. Do you know why he went? | 6. Tell me whence he came. |

1. In the first three sentences, what is the object of "do know"?
 2. In the last three sentences, what is the object of "tell"? 3. What kind of clauses may be used as objects? 4. Parse "who" and "what."
 5. What two uses has each? 6. How are the other noun-clauses connected to the rest of the sentence? 7. To what part of speech do *where, why, when, whence*, belong? 8. What do they modify? 9. What have you learned to call such words when they also serve to connect?

493. From the foregoing illustrations we see that *noun-clauses* also may be joined to the rest of the sentence by conjunctive adverbs. Thus:—

Show me **how** (= in what way) *the problem is solved*.

Here **how** is a conjunctive adverb; for it takes the place both of the conjunctive adjective "what" and of the phrase "in what way," which modifies *is solved* like an **adverb**.

EXERCISE 273.

- | | | | |
|------|---|------|---|
| 1. { | Go early.
Go at dawn.
Go [when] <u>day breaks</u> . | 2. { | He died here.
He died at his birthplace.
He died [where] <u>he was born</u> . |
|------|---|------|---|

1. In the first group of sentences what tells *when* one is "to go"?
 2. What kind of modifiers answers the question "when"? 3. Which of the adverb modifiers in the first group is a clause? Why? 4. In the second group what answers the question "*Where* did he die"?
 5. What kind of modifiers tells *where*? 6. Which modifier in the second group is a clause? Analyze it. 7. Like what part of speech is it used? 8. What then will you call it?

494. The preceding Exercise shows us that a clause may do the work of an *adverb* as well as that of an adjective or a noun, by showing *when*, *where*, *why*, and so on. Thus:—

Go **whenever** (= at whatever time) *he calls*.

Stand still **wherever** (= in whatever place) *you are*.

Fight **as** (= in what way) *a hero fights*.

These clauses, like adverbs, show *when*, *where*, and *how* one is "to go," "to stand," or "to fight," and are therefore called **Adverb-clauses**.

They are joined to the verb of the sentence either by conjunctive adverbs or simply by conjunctions. [See § 537.]

495. An *Adverb-clause* is one used in a sentence like an adverb.

496. A *Conjunctive* adverb is one that modifies some word in a clause, and connects the clause to the rest of the sentence.

497. A *Simple* adverb is one that modifies without connecting.

EXERCISE 274.

1. Select the **clauses**, and tell their kind.

2. Point out the **adverbs**, tell their **kind** and **what they modify**.

1. When does the moon change? 2. Can you tell wherein they differ? 3. Who knows whence he came? 4. Where there is a will there is a way. 5. When the wine is in, the wit is out. 6. I know a bank where the wild thyme grows. 7. Whither I go ye know not. 8. Come as the waves come when navies are stranded. 9. Thou canst not tell whence it cometh nor whither it goeth. 10. He works where the sun never shines. 11. Can you tell why the tides rise and fall? 12. They are found in lands where frost is unknown. 13. How can the stream be turned? 14. Whither thou goest I will go, and where thou lodgest I will lodge. 15. When the pyramids were built is uncertain. 16. I must know when he goes, where he goes, and how he goes. 17. This is the place where Franklin was born.

498. Interrogative Adverbs. The adverbs *how, when, where, why, whither, whence*, when used to introduce a question, may be called *interrogative adverbs*. [See 284 *b.*] As in—

How is it done? **When** did it happen? **Whence** came he?

499. Modal Adverbs. Certain adverbs, like *not, surely, certainly, perhaps, indeed*, etc., are sometimes used to show that a statement is made in a positive or negative or doubtful way. Thus:—

Surely you will not leave me. **Perhaps** he knows no better.

When so used they may be called *modal adverbs*.

500. Responsives. The words *yes, yea, no, nay*, used as responses to questions, were once used like adverbs. We may call them *responsives*; but, like interjections, they do not properly belong to the parts of speech, being used now in the place of entire sentences. Thus:—

“Are you coming?” “**Yes**”; (that is, “I am coming”).

501. Phrase-adverbs. Some little phrases, generally used as adverbs, cannot well be separated, and may be called *phrase-adverbs*. Among them are the following:—

At length; at last, at all; at once; as yet; by far; for good; at least; in general; in vain; in short; of old; of late; from below; etc.

502. There. The adverb *there* is frequently used without much of its original meaning to introduce a sentence in which the verb comes before its subject. Thus:—

There were a thousand *thère*.

When so used it may be called an *expletive*. [See page 99.]

B. INFLECTION AND USES.

503. Comparison. Adverbs have, in general, no change of form. A few, however, are compared like adjectives. Thus:—

soon, **sooner**, **soonest**; often, **oftener**, **oftenest**.

(a) The adverbs *ill, far, little, much, near, well*, are compared irregularly like the adjectives of the same form. [See § 337.]

504. Many adverbs that are not compared may have a comparative or superlative meaning added by the use of **more** and **most**, or **less** and **least**. As,—

quickly, *more* quickly, *most* quickly; *less* quickly, *least* quickly.

505. An adverb may modify not only a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, but also an infinitive, a participle, a preposition, a phrase, a clause, or even an entire sentence, as we have seen in § 499.

EXERCISE 275.

Point out the adverbs, and show exactly **what each modifies**.

1. Springing lightly into his saddle, he rode rapidly away. 2. It is lawful to do well on the sabbath day. 3. They live just beyond the

mill. 4. He sailed nearly round the world. 5. How quickly night comes on. 6. Do precisely as you are bidden. 7. The paths of glory lead but to the grave. 8. Assuredly he cannot be mistaken. 9. Perhaps you will have no other opportunity. 10. The tunnel extends almost through the mountain.

506. Adverbs used as Other Parts of Speech. For the use of adverbs as adjectives, see § 356; for their use as prepositions, § 522; as conjunctions, § 530.

507. Parsing Adverbs. To parse an adverb we have only to tell (1) its *kind*, and (2) *what it modifies*; the *form* (3) need be mentioned only when comparative or superlative.

EXAMPLE. We work [more cheerfully] [[when] we are [well] paid].

more is a *simple* adverb in the *comparative* degree; *used* to modify the adverb **cheerfully**.

cheerfully is a *simple* adverb modifying the verb **work**.

when is a *conjunctive* adverb modifying the verb **are paid**.

508. This briefer form may be used:—

more = sAv.; comp.; mod. av. **cheerfully**.

cheerfully = sAv.; mod. V. **work**.

when = cAv.; mod. V. **are paid**.

509. SUMMARY: ADVERBS.

Kinds.		Forms.	Uses.
Simple	(s)	Positive (<i>pos</i>)	Modifies the
Conjunctive	(c)	Comparative (<i>comp</i>)	Verb, Part., Inf. —.
[Interrogative]	(i)	Superlative (<i>sup</i>)	Adjective —.
[Modal]	(m)		Adverb —.
			Preposition, etc. —.

EXERCISE 276.

Parse the adverbs in Exercises 113–115, Part I.

510. Derivative and Compound Adverbs. (1) A great number of adverbs end in *-ly*, and are formed from *adjectives*; as *hot, hotly*; *wise, wisely*; *able, ably*.

(2) Others are made from various parts of speech —

(a) With the suffixes *-wise* or *-ward*; as, *upward, homeward, likewise*; or —

(b) With the prefixes *a-*, *be-*; as, *afoot, besides*.

(3) Some adverbs are *compounded* of other words; as, *forever, sometimes, henceforth*.

511. What may be used as an Adverb. (a) Many words taken from among the *Adjectives* are used without change of form as adverbs. Thus:—

high, fast, much, little, far.

(b) Many words that have become *Prepositions* or *Conjunctions* sometimes keep their former use as adverbs. Thus:—

He stood up. They go hence.

(c) A *Phrase* may be used as an adverb [§ 519]. Thus:—

I shall go by and by. He came at night.

(d) A *Clause* may be used as an adverb [§ 494].

C. ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADVERBS.

512. Adjective for Adverb. *Never use an adjective where an adverb is required.* Thus:—

“He reads slow and distinct” is wrong. The adjectives “slow” and “distinct” should not be used to describe the manner of reading. The sentence should be “He reads *slowly* and *distinctly*.”

513. Adverb for Predicate-adjective. *Never use an adverb in place of an adjective to complete a copulative verb.*

“Miss Ward looked beautifully” is wrong. “Looked” is a copulative verb, for the meaning is “She *was* beautiful in appearance.” We should therefore use a predicate-adjective, and say, “Miss Ward looked beautiful.”

514. Double Negatives. *Use only one negative in making a denial.*

"He has never had nothing to do with it" should be "He has never had *anything* to do with it." The two negatives neutralize each other, and spoil the meaning of the sentence.

(a) Never use such expressions as "I *don't scarcely* ever go," or "We do *not hardly* expect it," when the meaning is, "I *scarcely* ever go," or "I *hardly* expect it."

(b) Such expressions as "We are *not unmindful* of your kindness;" "He is *never unwilling* to learn" are right and convey just the meaning intended. What is the meaning?

515. Adverbial expressions should be so placed in the sentence as to convey just the meaning intended. Compare —

Only the address can be written on this side (nothing else).

The address can **only** be written on this side (not printed).

The address can be written on *this* side **only** (not on the other).

EXERCISE 277.

Point out the errors in the following sentences, and give the rule violated : —

1. A miser never gives anything to nobody.
2. I never hear from im scarcely.
3. How sweetly the music sounds!
4. He was tolerable well-informed.
5. The princess looked extremely beautifully.
6. We reached home safely and soundly.
7. Did not the young man appear awkwardly?
8. We shall not go this week, I don't think.
9. This water tastes strongly of sulphur.
10. What we do easiest, we ought to do well.
11. The fruit looks well; but it tastes badly.
12. How strangely everything seems in this light!
13. Matters look badly for him.
14. Do you feel badly?

Say rather "Do you feel *ill, tired, unhappy?*" "Bad" is indefinite and ambiguous.

15. I want to go to Florida very badly.
16. It isn't only a short distance.
17. He stood silently and alone.
18. Speak more distinct if you can.
19. He hasn't but one chance more.
20. How very strangely your voice sounds!
21. The children were very pleased with their presents. He was too confused to speak.

Very and *too* should never be used to modify a participle.

22. Do you intend to sing or no? 23. I feel very doubtfully about it to-day. 24. Most all men are ambitious.

Never use *most* when you mean *almost*.

25. I never liked neither him nor his opinions. 26. You are too frightened to be of any use. 27. Three of the crew only reached the shore. 28. He desired to be rich very much. 29. I shall be glad to see you always. 30. There only was a solitary fort where Chicago stands fifty years ago. 31. Deaf mutes can only talk with their hands or lips or eyes.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. How does an adverb differ from an adjective? 2. Use "hard" both as adjective and as adverb, in the same sentence. 3. To what is a conjunctive adverb equivalent? 4. Use "when" both as a simple and as a conjunctive adverb. 5. Give a sentence containing a preposition modified by an adverb. 6. What three kinds of clauses may be introduced by a conjunctive adverb? 7. Give sentences containing clauses of each kind. 8. What is a modal adverb? 9. Parse "there" in "There's a good time coming, boys." 10. Parse the adverbs in "It can be very much more easily done."

CHAPTER XII.

PREPOSITIONS.

[Review pages 51-57.]

516. Prepositions are comparatively few in number; and, though they do not themselves modify other words, they are necessary *to show how different ideas are related to each other*. They help to make phrases that modify like adjectives and adverbs.

517. The **object** of a preposition may be, —

1. **A Noun:** The farmers are **at work** *in the field*.

or some expression equivalent to a noun; as, —

2. **A Pronoun:** I went **from you** *to her*.
3. **An Infinitive:** Thank him **for doing** the errand.
4. **A Phrase:** The Indians fired **from behind** *the trees*.
5. **A Clause:** I am surprised **at what you say**.

(a) The object sometimes precedes the preposition, especially in poetry. Thus: —

The heavy night hung dark the *hills* and *waters o'er*.

Uses of Prepositional Phrases.

518. A prepositional phrase may be used like an adjective —

- (1) *To modify a noun or a pronoun*; as in —

There's no hope **of rescue**. Which **of you** will go?

or (2) *As a subjective complement*; as in —

Your friend is **in good spirits**. They are **of great service**.

(a) When used as an adjective, it may be called an *adjective phrase*.

519. A prepositional phrase may be used like an **adverb** to modify —

1. **A Verb:** Go **in haste** | **to the town** | **for the doctor**.

2. **An Infinitive:** To waste **in youth** is to want **in age**.

3. **A Participle:** Bees coming **to hives** laden **with honey**.

4. **An Adjective:** The narrative is full **of interest**.

5. **An Adverb:** She did well **for a beginner**.

(a) When used as an adverb, it may be called an *adverb-phrase*.

520. A prepositional phrase may be used like a **noun**, as subject, object, etc., — especially after *from*. Thus: —

They came *from across the seas*.

Out of sight is out of mind.

EXERCISE 278.

Point out the prepositional phrases in Exercise 301, and tell whether they are used as adjectives or as adverbs.

521. Phrase-prepositions. Some little phrases are so much like single prepositions in their use, that, instead of separating them, we may call them *phrase-prepositions*. Thus: —

It crawled $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{from} \\ \text{out of} \\ \text{from out} \end{array} \right\}$ a hole.

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{In} \\ \text{As to} \\ \text{As for} \end{array} \right\}$ color, this is perfect.

The following are some of the phrases most commonly used as prepositions: —

According to; as to; as for; along with; instead of; out of; in spite of; in front of; by means of; on board; etc.

522. Prepositions as Adverbs or Conjunctions. Most of the prepositions were once adverbs, and are often used as such [§ 511, b]. Thus: —

It isn't worth talking about. How was it disposed of?

Sometimes they become conjunctions [§ 537]. Thus :—

Stay till I come. We started before the moon rose.

523. Parsing Prepositions. A preposition is parsed (1) by stating *that it is a preposition*, and (2) by showing *how it is used*.

These forms may be followed :—

[In his garden] grew flowers (of every hue).

in is a preposition, used with its object **garden** to make a phrase that modifies **grew**.

of is a preposition, used with its object **hue** to make a phrase modifying **flowers**.

524. Following the briefer form, we write—

in = prep. ; with O. **garden**, mod. **grew**.

of = prep. ; with O. **hue**, mod. **flowers**.

EXERCISE 279.

1. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences.

2. What words are here adverbs that are often prepositions?

1. From peak to peak the rattling crags among leaps the live thunder. 2. This is the house that he lives in. 3. Come on ; let us go in. 4. Will you stay till after dinner? 5. These jewels came from across the sea. 6. As to that, men differ in opinion. 7. He ran from under the tree. 8. All excepting him have gone. 9. But one remains. 10. All but one have gone. 11. There is nothing to be done now but to retreat. 12. Quit yourselves like men. 13. Look the whole world over, and you will not find it. 14. Judging from what he says, I believe him honest.

3. Parse the prepositions in any of the Exercises in this book.

525. Errors in the use of Prepositions. Care must be taken to use appropriate prepositions. Thus :—

Between refers to *two* objects: Divide the money *between* the two claimants.

Among refers to *more than two* objects: Divide the money *among* the crew.

Into and **to** follow verbs of *motion*; **in** and **at** verbs of *rest*: Go *into* the house and remain *in* it. He is *at* home.

Say "I met him **in** the street," "*in* the car," "*in* the train," "*in* a steamboat," rather than "*on* the street," etc.

Say "different **from**," not "different *to*" nor "different *than*"; as, "Mine is different *from* yours."

526. *Do not use prepositions needlessly nor omit them when they are required.* Thus:—

I do not wish *for* your services. Omit *for*.

The book is no use to me. Say "*of* no use."

EXERCISE 280.

Point out and correct the errors in these sentences, giving your reason. —

1. This work is different to any that have appeared. 2. When shall you be to home? 3. I should have gone if I had been able to. 4. Do smell of these flowers. 5. The signing that note was a mistake. 6. Leave more space between each column. 7. Let us go in the park. 8. His answer was very different than yours. 9. I could prevail with him to go. 10. Try to profit from the failures of others. 11. There is constant rivalry between the four roads. 12. He was presented with a valuable testimonial. 13. We arrived on a late train, and stayed in the hotel till morning. 14. On what street do you live? 15. Virtue and vice differ widely with each other. 16. How do you reconcile such actions to what he said? 17. First become reconciled with thy brother. 18. A preposition is a bad word to end a sentence with. 19. Is he worthy your confidence? 20. He plays on the organ very skilfully. 21. It is no use to try.

CHAPTER XIII.

CONJUNCTIONS.

[Review pages 58-62.]

527. Since we first defined conjunctions (§ 98) we have studied several other kinds of connective words:—

(1) The **conjunctive pronouns** *who, which, that, what*, etc., which, while they connect, also do the work of nouns and pronouns;

(2) The **conjunctive adverbs** *when, where, while*, etc., which, besides connecting, always modify; and—

(3) The **prepositions**, which show the relation between words.

We now come to genuine **Conjunctions**, the chief use of which is to *connect* the parts of compound and complex sentences.

KINDS.

528. Conjunctions are divided according to their use into two classes: (1) **co-ordinating** conjunctions, that connect the parts of a sentence so that they remain *alike in rank* or construction; and (2) **subordinating** conjunctions, that make one of the connected parts dependent upon or a *part* of the other.

"Co-ordinate" means *of equal rank*; "subordinate," *of inferior rank*.

529. I. Co-ordinating conjunctions are used to connect (1) *The members of a compound sentence*. Thus:—

The floods came, **and** the winds blew, **but** it fell not.

We must overcome evil, **or** it will overcome us.

(2) *Words, phrases, and clauses having the same construction.* Thus:—

Bright **and** happy children were running **or** playing there.

True friends are the same in prosperity **and** in adversity.

I do not know when he came **nor** whither he went.

(a) Co-ordinating conjunctions are sometimes used at the beginning of a separate sentence to connect it in meaning with what precedes.

530. We give the name co-ordinating conjunctions *first* to **and**, **but**, **or**, **nor**, which do nothing but connect; *secondly*, to certain words which, though they retain their adverbial meaning, serve principally to show the connection between the members of a compound sentence. Thus:—

I do not believe in the change; **however**, I shall not oppose it.

(a) *Therefore, hence, still, besides, consequently, yet, likewise, moreover, else, then, also, accordingly, nevertheless, notwithstanding, etc.*, are words of this kind. Try to form sentences beginning with them, and you will see that they refer to what has been said before in each case.

531. A *Co-ordinating conjunction* is one that joins sentences or parts of sentences having the same rank.

532. We can if we wish divide all co-ordinating conjunctions into four classes:—

1. *Copulative*, or such as merely join together, like **and**.
2. *Alternative*, or such as offer a choice between two, like **or**.
3. *Adversative*, or such as imply that one part is opposed to the other, like **but**.
4. *Causal*, or such as assign a cause, a reason, a result, etc., like **for**.

533. Correlatives. Some conjunctions, called *correlatives*, are used in pairs, one before each of the connected parts to make their connection more evident. Thus:—

I have **both** seen **and** heard the orator.

They are to meet us **either** in Paris **or** in London.

Give me **neither** poverty nor riches.

Whether to go or to return is the question.

NOTE. The first word of each pair may be parsed as an auxiliary or *assistant* conjunction helping the other to do the connecting.

EXERCISE 281.

Point out the conjunctions, and explain what each connects.

1. He is liberal, but he is not generous. 2. They are poor, yet they are not needy. 3. Both he and I are going. 4. I believed; therefore have I spoken. 5. That route is dangerous: besides we have no guide. 6. The book is not perfect: still it is very helpful. 7. Either Hamlet was insane, or he feigned insanity. 8. The sea is rough, for I hear the surf. 9. He yields neither to force nor to persuasion.

10. The fault is neither yours nor mine, but theirs. 11. I have had experience both in sickness and in health. 12. But I can never be natural enough, even when there is the most occasion. 13. As to the book you mention, I am in doubt whether to read it or not. 14. *We* cannot go, nor should *you*. 15. He is a genius, though he does not seem so.

534. Punctuation. **RULE.**—*When the members of a compound sentence are long, or much like separate sentences, the semicolon or the colon must be used between them instead of the comma.* [See § 96.]

535. Subordinating Conjunctions. If we unite the sentences, —

Rain has fallen. The grass is wet,

by the co-ordinating conjunction “and”; thus, —

Rain has fallen, **and** the grass is wet,

we make a compound sentence with co-ordinate members; that is, with members of equal rank. But if we unite them by the conjunction “because”; thus, —

The grass is wet, **because** rain has fallen,

we change their relation and rank, and make one of them

an *adverb-clause* that gives a reason for the other, by telling *why* the grass is wet.

So too in the sentences, —

It will dry ~~after the sun has risen~~. (When?)

We must hasten, *that we may meet our friends.* (Why?)

We shall wait *if they have not come*. (On what condition?)

the conjunctions **after, that, if,** change what might be independent sentences into adverb-clauses that modify verbs by showing *when, why, on what condition*, etc.

536. Conjunctions of this kind connect two sentences by changing one of them into a clause which becomes part of the other, and they are therefore called **subordinating**.

537. Most subordinating conjunctions are used to make *adverb-clauses*, which may modify in a variety of ways. Thus, they may denote:—

1. **Time:** We waited *after* { *before, since,*
till, until, ere, } *you came.*
2. **Cause or Reason:** I will go *because* { *for, since, as,*
inasmuch as, } *you ask it.*
3. **Manner:** Work *as if* (*as though*) *you were paid.*
4. **Comparison:** { The nights are *longer than the days* [*are*].
Venus is more distant *than the moon* [*is*].
5. { **Condition,**
Concession, etc.: } { I will go *if* { *unless*
provided } *he needs me.*
Though (although) he is poor he is content.
6. **Purpose or Result:** { Take good care *that (lest)* *they escape.*
Exercise daily, that you may grow strong.

538. The subordinating conjunction **that** (and sometimes **whether**) is often used in making a noun-clause. Thus the sentences —

He was wrong. We knew that fact.

when united by *that* become —

We knew **that** *he was wrong*.

So —

Ask **whether** *the steamer has sailed*.

539. A Subordinating conjunction is one that changes an assertion into a clause, and connects it to the rest of the sentence.

540. Phrase-conjunctions. Some little phrases are used to connect like single words. For example:—

Corn **as well as** wheat may be raised here.

I shall go **inasmuch as** he has invited me.

The most common phrase-conjunctions are *as if, as though, as well as, forasmuch as, provided that, seeing that, so that, in order that*, etc.

541. Parsing Conjunctions. In parsing a conjunction we are to tell (1) its *kind*, and (2) *what it connects*. The following forms may be used:—

1. He spoke and acted [⁺as if (his) life were in danger].

and is a *co-ordinating* conjunction, and connects the two verbs **spoke** and **acted**.

as if is a *subordinating* phrase-conjunction, and connects the adverb-clause to **spoke** and **acted**, which it modifies.

2. [⁺After we had sailed] we found that (the) ship leaked.

after is a *subordinating* conjunction, and connects the adverb-clause to **found**, which it modifies.

that is a *subordinating* conjunction, and joins the noun-clause to **found**, of which it is the object.

542. Following the briefer form we may write:—

and = co. conj.; connects the verbs **spoke** and **acted**.

as if = sub. ph.-conj.; connects avc. to **spoke** and **acted**.

after = sub. conj.; connects avc. to **found**.

that = sub. conj.; connects nc. to **found**.

543. Punctuation. RULE.— *Adverb-clauses must generally be set off by commas unless they are very short or immediately follow the word that they modify.*

544. SUMMARY: FORMS FOR PARSING.

Kinds. — is a $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Co-ordinating (co)} \\ \text{Subordinating (sub)} \\ \text{Correlative (cor)} \end{array} \right\}$ Conjunction (*conj*);

Uses. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{It connects the co-ordinate} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{words — and —.} \\ \text{phrases — and —.} \\ \text{clauses — and —.} \\ \text{members — and —.} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{It connects the adverb- (or noun-) clause to —.} \\ \text{It helps — to connect — and —.} \end{array} \right.$

EXERCISE 282.

1. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences.

2. Analyze the sentences, and **parse** the conjunctions.

1. Though I admire his courage, I detest his cruelty. 2. Remain until sunset. 3. Do not go until the sun has set. 4. Think twice before you speak. 5. I have not seen my friend since he returned from Dublin. 6. If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes. 7. I am proud that I am an American. 8. We know that the moon is uninhabited. 9. That the moon is uninhabited is well known.

10. The fact that the moon is uninhabited is well known. 11. It is well known that the moon is not inhabited. 12. The fact is that the moon has no inhabitants. 13. As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him. 14. Come down ere my child die. 15. It is more than heart can bear. 16. Language was given us that we might say pleasant things to each other. 17. If spring is without blossoms, autumn will be without fruit. 18. It was so cold that the mercury froze. 19. He failed in business because he was dishonest.

545. Errors in the Use of Conjunctions. Observe these rules:—

1. *Do not use or for nor as the correlative of neither.*

"Neither you or I", should be "Neither you nor I."

2. *Do not use like instead of as or as if.*

He acted *like* (as if) he was crazy. Sing *like* (as) I do.

3. *Do not use but for than after other or any comparative word.*

I have no *other* friend *but* (than) you; or, I have no friend *but* you.

4. *Do not use but what for that or but that.*

I have no doubt *but what* (that) he did it.

5. *Do not use if when you mean whether.*

See *if* (whether) he can go.

EXERCISE 283.

Correct the following sentences:—

1. I have no other reason but this.
2. I did not know but what you were busy.
3. He will neither come in or go out.
4. Is there no one else but he to go?
5. He no sooner sees me, but he runs to meet me.
6. He walked like he was lame.
7. He did not deny but what he owed the money.
8. I can't say if he will be here or not.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. What may the object of a preposition be?
2. Give examples.
3. What parts of speech may the phrase resemble?
4. Use one as adjective, as complement, as adverb.
5. Explain the difference between prepositions and conjunctions.
6. Between the two kinds of conjunctions.
7. Discriminate between the italicized words in "after sunset," and "after the sun had set"; in "I have not seen him since noon," and "Since it is true, he must go."
8. In "Act as you feel"; "As I looked, it fell"; "She is not so tall as you," as is a conjunctive adverb. In "As life is short, improve it," as is a conjunction; and in "This is such as I want," as is a pronoun. Try to explain why.

CHAPTER XIV.

INTERJECTIONS, Etc.

546. We call interjections one of the parts of speech because they are spoken and written as words; but they cannot enter into the construction of sentences, being only "thrown in between" them.

They are half-way between ordinary language and the language of coughing, laughing, crying, and so on, which they are made to imitate.

547. Among commonly-written interjections are included —

I. Words used instead of an assertion to express feeling of various kinds:—

- (a) *Surprise or wonder*; as, **oh, ah, lo, whew.**
- (b) *Pleasure, joy, exultation*; as, **oh, ah, aha, hey, hurrah.**
- (c) *Pain, sadness, sorrow*; as, **oh, ah, alas, alack, lack-a-day.**
- (d) *Contempt, disgust*; as, **pshaw, fie, fudge, pooh, ugh, bah.**

II. Words used instead of a question; as, **eh? ah? hey?**

III. Words used instead of a command:—

- (a) *To call attention*; as, **O, lo, ho, hem, hollo, ahoy.**
- (b) *To silence*; as, **hist, hush, whist, 'st, mum.**
- (c) *To direct, expel, and so on*; as, **whoa, gee, haw, scat.**

IV. Words used to imitate sounds made by animals, machines, and so on. As,—

bow-wow, ba-a-a, pop, bang, ding-dong, rub-a-dub, whiz, whir-r, patter.

Notice the sound of such verbs and nouns as **grunt, buzz, roar, crash, hiss, puff.**

Other Exclamatory Words.

548. Many ordinary words and phrases are often used independently as mere exclamations, when their real meaning is hardly thought of. So with—

- (1) *Nouns and pronouns*: fire, nonsense, mercy, shame, what.
- (2) *Verbs*: help, behold, look, see, begone, hark, listen.
- (3) *Adjectives*: hail, well, welcome, strange, good, bravo.
- (4) *Adverbs, prepositions, and phrases*: out, indeed, how, why, back, forward; on, up; amen, O dear, dear me, farewell, adieu, good-by, good-day.

549. When such an expression, even though used alone, retains its original meaning, we may supply what is omitted, and treat the word as part of a sentence. Thus:—

Silence! (keep silence!) Good! (that is good!)

550. Sometimes, as when greatly excited, we abandon sentences altogether, and utter only the most important words; as,—

A sail! a sail! Now for the boats! Down with it!
Steady! Lower! To your oars, men!

551. Punctuation. *RULE.—Every interjection but O must be followed by an exclamation point when used in a very exclamatory way.*

EXERCISE 284.

- 1. Write sentences**, using each of these words in the right way:—

O! ahoy! alas! what! ho! Oh! eh! pshaw! hark! sh!

- 2. Give five or ten words** used to imitate different animals.

- 3. What animals** do you think the following are made to imitate?

tu-whit, tu-whoo; whir-r; buzz; chick-a-dee;
whip-poor-will; twitter; chirp; bellow; whinny.

CHAPTER XV.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

[Review §§ 402-412.]

552. Of the vast number of words that have been derived from verbs, the greater part keep only the *idea* of the verb without any verbal uses. Thus, though "rider" means "one that *rides*," it is treated in sentences merely as a noun.

But what we have called "Verbal Nouns and Verbal Adjectives" are a peculiar kind of verbal words that need to be studied by themselves.

553. Infinitives are in their nature partly nouns. First, being names (of actions, etc.), they are *nouns*, and they have the uses of nouns. Secondly, though they cannot assert, they are like verbs in meaning and they take the same modifiers or complements. Thus in—

I wish **to drive** my horse slowly,

to drive, like a noun, is the object of "wish," and, like a verb, it expresses action, has an object, "horse," and is modified by an adverb, "slowly."

554. Participles are in part adjectives, for they modify nouns and pronouns; and they are in part verbs, for they take the same modifiers or complements. They do not assert that a thing does or is so and so, but they describe it so as to imply as much. Thus, in the sentence—

I met a man **driving** his sheep to market,

driving, like an adjective, modifies "man," and, like a verb, takes an object, "sheep." It describes the man as acting without asserting anything of him.

NOTE. We might very well apply the name "participle" to all words that share or *participate* in the nature of two parts of speech; but by custom we keep this name for verbal adjectives, and call the nouns infinitives.

EXERCISE 285.

1. Tell in what respect these infinitives are *nouns* and how they resemble *verbs*:—

1. *To get* wisdom is a noble ambition. 2. *Making* money absorbed his time. 3. Many have tried *to reach* the north pole. 4. Columbus won immortality by *discovering* a new world. 5. *To try* again is *to succeed*. 6. *Giving* quickly is *giving* twice.

2. Tell in what respect each participle is like a *verb* and like an *adjective*:—

1. I heard the birds *singing* merrily. 2. The vessel entered port badly *damaged* by the storm. 3. The men are aloft *furling* the main-sail. 4. The water *flowing* from the rock makes a pool. 5. *Saying* this, he withdrew. 6. We found him *beaten, wounded, and left* for dead.

I. INFINITIVES.

A. KINDS OR FORMS.

555. Nearly every verb has two simple infinitives; as,—
(*to drive, driving; (to) run, running;*
named from their forms the **Root-infinitive** and the **Infinitive in *ing***. [Foot-note, page 195.]

556. As verb-phrases are used instead of inflected forms, so too **infinitive phrases** are used instead of the simple forms to express certain changes of meaning.

Thus, like the root-infinitive we have:—

	SIMPLE FORMS.	PERFECT FORMS.
	TO DRIVE	to have driven
<i>Progressive.</i>	to be driving	to have been driving
<i>Passive.</i>	to be driven	to have been driven,

and like the infinitive in *ing* we have:—

	SIMPLE FORMS.	PERFECT FORMS.
	DRIVING	having driven
<i>Progressive.</i>	(being driving) ¹	having been driving
<i>Passive.</i>	(being driven) ²	having been driven.

[For the use of all these forms as nouns, see § 564, and compare § 581.]

EXERCISE 286.

1. Find **names** by which to designate each of the following infinitives. Thus:—

"To have been driven" is a perfect passive infinitive.

to sing	having found	to be giving
to be lost	printing	to be given
to have given	to have been writing	being obeyed

2. Give the **root-infinitive phrases** of the following words:—

show; learn; leave; ring; blow; do; teach; fight; eat; bend.

3. Give also the phrases that are based on the **infinitive in ing**.

To, the "Sign" of the Infinitive.

EXERCISE 287.

Look carefully below for whatever can be called a **prepositional phrase**.

1. The wagon **was** used for carting wood.
2. The wagon **was** used to cart wood.
3. The man **was** hired to cut wood.
4. I am rejoiced at seeing you.
5. We are glad to see you.
6. I came for the purpose of telling you.
7. We are here to inform you.
8. They furnish steam for driving the engine.
9. We have brought wood to burn.
10. Help me in building my house.
11. Help me to build my house.

¹ A rare form, as in "punished for being out driving."

² Also a rare form. [See § 451.]

12. They carried water for drinking.
13. The people have nothing to eat.
14. On hearing you we were convinced.
15. To hear you one would be misled.

557. In each of the foregoing sentences for practice there is a prepositional phrase used to show the *purpose*, *cause*, *object*, etc. Both infinitives are used in much the same way, whether preceded by *for*, *in*, *on*, *at*, or *to*, and the word **to** resembles an ordinary preposition. Thus:—

A time **to** dance = a time *for* dancing.

She is pleased **to** be asked = pleased *at* being asked.

Help me **to** make ready = *in* making ready.

558. Explanation. (1) **To** as a preposition with the infinitive was formerly used only to make a phrase expressing *purpose*; as, —

We wait **to** see you.

(2) Afterward this common phrase was used in expressing many ideas besides that of purpose, and often for such ideas as we should now use different prepositions in expressing; as, —

The water is good **to** drink (for drinking).

I forced him **to** laugh (into laughing).

He failed **to** appear (of appearing).

I rejoice **to** hear (at hearing).

She was wise **to** make that choice (in making it).

(3) Finally **to** came to seem a part of the infinitive which even now it generally accompanies, — though not always. It means nothing of itself and serves only as a *sign* that the following word is an infinitive. Thus:—

To die is **to** sleep. (dying is sleeping)

I like **to** stay. (staying)

[For the infinitive used without **to**, see §§ 563, 569.]

B. USES, OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

559. The two infinitives, each with its group of phrases, have similar meanings, but we shall see that sometimes they have different uses.

560. I. Either infinitive may be used as **Subject** or **Subjective Complement**; as, —

To hesitate now is **to be lost**. **Making** promises is not **keeping** them. **To have given** freely is **to be asked** for more. His **having** once **been crowned** will make him noble.

(a) An infinitive may be used as the *real subject* of a verb to explain the anticipative subject **it** (§ 303); as, —

It is dangerous to trifle with temptation.

EXERCISE 288.

Analyze the following sentences, and **parse the infinitives**. Thus:—

Making (promises) is [not] keeping (them).

It is dangerous (to trifle with temptation).

Making is a simple infinitive of the transitive verb "make, made, made," used as the subject of *is*.

To trifle is a simple infinitive of the complete verb "trifle, trifled, trifled," used as the real subject of *is* to explain the anticipative subject *it*.

1. To be good is to be happy. 2. Seeing is believing. 3. To relieve the wretched was his pride. 4. It is excellent to have a giant's strength. 5. Life is more than living for self. 6. To have been honest is not enough. 7. It is a crime to conceal a crime. 8. It is impossible not to grow old. 9. Reading by twilight may injure the sight. 10. It is always best to tell the truth. 11. It was discouraging not to have been kindly received. 12. Seeming good is not being good. 13. Will it not be easy to reject them?

561. II. Either infinitive may be the **Object of a verb**; as, —

I enjoy **swimming**. I like **to swim**. I will **swim**.
She prefers **sitting** quietly. She prefers **to sit** quietly.

But there are many verbs that admit one infinitive and not the other as object; and, without following any rule, we learn by *practice* which to use. Thus, we say, —

"I desire to go now,"	not	"I desire going now."
"They finished reciting verses,"	not	"finished to recite verses."
"I cannot avoid crying ,"	not	"avoid to cry ."
"We have to go now,"	not	"We have going now."

562. Sometimes the infinitive is used as the object of a verb that has also an *indirect* object. Thus: —

He taught [all his pupils] to sing, like —
He taught singing [to all his pupils];

in which one object names the *persons* who were taught, and the other the *thing* that was taught to them. Either one may be used as subject in the passive form [§ 452]; as, —

All his pupils were taught [to sing], or —
To sing was taught [to all his pupils].

563. After some verbs the infinitive is used as complement without the superfluous "to." [Compare § 569.] Thus: —

(1) After the verbs **do**, **may**, **can**, **must**, **shall**, and generally **will**, whether they have their own proper meaning or only that of auxiliaries in making verb-phrases. [See §§ 428, 432, 446.]

(2) Sometimes after **dare** and **need**. Thus: —

She dared to meet them all.	They dared not look up.
It needs to be repaired.	You need not go.

(3) After **had** (a subjunctive of **have**) with the adjective expressions **as lief**, **rather**, **better**, **best**. Thus, in the sentences, —

I had as lief **die**, I had rather **go**,

the meaning is, "I should hold it as desirable or more desirable *to die*, *to go*."

"You had better go" is copied from this expression, but the meaning of "had" is perverted.

EXERCISE 289.

Analyze the following sentences, and **parse** the infinitives.
Thus:—

(Every) man should learn to govern (himself).

He remembers having been associated (with Jackson).

To govern is a simple infinitive, used as the object of *should learn*.

Having been associated is a perfect passive infinitive, used as the object of *remembers*.

1. Who would wish to be forgotten? 2. They refused to release the prisoner. 3. I have tried to do justice to everybody. 4. He dislikes being falsely accused. 5. The firm expects to be moving out to-morrow. 6. Do you regret having done no more? 7. Avoid speaking ill of your neighbor. 8. He promised me to go at once. 9. Those who try deserve to be rewarded. 10. They dare not accuse him of dishonesty. 11. You need not tell me that story again.

564. III. Either infinitive may be the Object of a preposition. Thus:—

We are weary *with* **watching** those men. *From* **having been** king he came at last *to* **being supported** by charity. They were rewarded *for* never **having been captured**. The receiver was accused *of* **having been taking** bribes. We missed the performance *by* **being out walking**.

(a) The root-infinitive with "to" is now used only after the prepositions **about** and **but**. Thus:—

The leader was *about* **to drive off** = *about driving off*.

I am *about* **to go** = *about going*.

He could do anything *but* **make** money; that is,—

He understood everything *but* **making** money.

EXERCISE 290.

Analyze the following sentences, and **parse** the infinitives.
Thus:—

(Of making many books) there is (no) end.

Making is a simple transitive infinitive, used as the object of the preposition *of*.

1. After visiting Paris, we returned to London. 2. Seven years were spent in securing our independence. 3. We could do nothing but fight. 4. He studied three years in Germany, after being graduated at Harvard. 5. He was about to return to his native land. 6. We can improve by imitating good examples. 7. Mary, after having been imprisoned nineteen years, was at last beheaded. 8. They know nothing about its having been written. 9. They are pleased at having done it successfully. 10. He escaped his pursuers by assuming a disguise. 11. The dog did everything but speak to him.

565. IV. The root-infinitive with **to** may be used **Adjectively** with a noun or a pronoun, like a prepositional phrase. In this use the preposition **to** generally resembles "for" in meaning. Thus:—

Wood to burn,	that is, <i>for burning.</i>
Houses to let,	that is, <i>for letting.</i>
Work to be done,	that is, <i>for doing.</i>
The years to come,	that is, <i>about coming.</i>

(a) It is also often used as a **predicate adjective**, or subjective complement. Thus:—

The house is **to be sold** (*is for sale*).
 This money is **to give to the poor** (*is for charity*).
 Such conduct is **to be despised** (*is despicable*).
 He appears **to have lost his mind** (*appears insane*).
 He was found **to be in the right**.
 They are supposed **to have lost their way**.

EXERCISE 291.

Analyze the following sentences, **parse the infinitives**, and **give equivalent phrases** when possible. Thus:—

(The) question (to be decided) is (very) difficult.

To be decided is a passive infinitive, used adjectively to modify the noun *question*. It is equivalent to "for decision."

1. The prisoner found an opportunity to escape. 2. The question

is to be settled on its merits. 3. Have you time to hear my statement? 4. The company was to receive a thousand pounds. 5. Leaves have their time to fall. 6. Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast. 7. The Indians seem to be fading from the land. 8. He was found to be a Nihilist. 9. The story was thought to be false. 10. There is no time to be lost.

566. The infinitive in *ing* is also used adjectively in expressions like "the rising bell," that is, "the bell for rising."

567. V. The root-infinitive with **to**, like a prepositional phrase, may be used **Adverbially** to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. In this use the preposition **to** often resembles "toward" or "for"; so that the phrase denotes the *object, purpose, cause, respect in which*, etc. Thus:—

I *urged* him **to stay** (toward staying).

We *need* the money **to pay** (for paying) the help.

Strive **to please**. Help me **(to) finish** my work.

They are *slow* **to depart** (in departing).

He was *quick* **to reply** (at replying).

It is ripe *enough* **to eat** (for eating).

Time is *too* precious **to be lost** (for losing).

EXERCISE 292.

Select the infinitives, tell what each one modifies, and, if possible, use another prepositional phrase in its stead. Thus:—

Come I [to speak in Cæsar's funeral].

To speak is a simple infinitive, used adverbially to modify *come*. It is nearly equivalent to "for speaking."

1. I called to see him immediately. 2. My friends were delighted to receive the gifts. 3. She is too sensible to be flattered. 4. They are well able to bear the loss. 5. Be swift to hear, and slow to speak. 6. They died to defend their country's flag. 7. We are all striving to secure happiness. 8. The enemy were anxious to be moving southward, though they were weak enough to be easily conquered. 9. The

waves mount up to kiss the blushing morn. 10. Hope comes with smiles, the hour of pain to cheer. 11. Perseverance will help to conquer our difficulties. 12. The fire of the enemy forced us to retreat. 13. The uncertainty of life should lead us to use it wisely. 14. I have explained it sufficiently to be understood.

568. VI. The root-infinitive is often used along with the object of a verb as the **Indirect Predicate** of it, the object and the infinitive being nearly equivalent to an objective noun-clause. Thus:—

We believed *it to be true* = We believed *that it was true*.
 I expected *him to come* = I expected *that he would come*.
 He asked *me to stay* = He asked *that I should stay*.
 Permit *us to go* = Permit *that we should go*.
 I thought *him to be rich* = I thought *that he was rich*.

[For "I thought him rich," "I thought him a man of means," see § 348. For "I knew it to be him," see § 322.]

NOTE. This construction is most common after verbs meaning *think, perceive, declare, command, permit*, and the like, taking the place of an indirect quotation. But the infinitive after these verbs may sometimes be explained in other ways.

In "I believed *him to be a liar*," "him," though made objective because it follows "believed," is not meant to be separated from the following phrase.

569. (a) After *bid, let, make, see, hear, feel*, and *have* an infinitive is used as indirect predicate without *to* (compare § 563). As in,—

Bid { <i>him remain.</i> <i>that he should remain.</i>	Let { <i>us go.</i> <i>that we should go.</i>
He made { <i>the top spin.</i> <i>that the top should spin.</i>	I saw { <i>her go.</i> <i>that she went.</i>
We felt { <i>the house shake.</i> <i>that the house shook.</i>	Hear the bells <i>ring.</i> Have him <i>copy this.</i>

570. The infinitive as indirect predicate is sometimes used with the **object of a preposition**. Thus:—

He gave orders *for me to go*. It is time *for the work to be done*.

571. The infinitive is sometimes used in elliptical constructions. Thus:—

To tell the truth, I had quite forgotten you; instead of —
 I must say, in order to tell the truth, etc.

EXERCISE 293.

Analyze the following sentences, and **parse** the infinitives. Suggest an equivalent clause when possible. Thus:—

I thought him to have been unjustly treated.

To have been treated is a perfect passive infinitive used as the indirect predicate of *him*. "That he had been unjustly treated" is an equivalent clause.

1. They declared the child to be dying. 2. I imagined him to be listening. 3. I wished him to succeed. 4. We felt the ground sink. 5. Allow the goods to be sent at once. 6. He has known them to remain until fall. 7. The law requires them to work but ten hours. 8. The jury thought him to be guilty of the crime. 9. I found my friend to have been dead a month. 10. All men consider Washington to have been a patriot. 11. I expected him to go at once. 12. No one believed him to be so cruel. 13. To speak plainly, we held it to be an outrage. 14. I suppose it to have been him. 15. We have ordered the house to be vacated immediately. 16. They forbade us to enter. 17. We shall have them go at once. 18. They made the welkin ring with their hurrahs.

572. The infinitive in **ing** sometimes loses all its verbal uses, takes adjectives instead of adverbs as modifiers, and becomes merely **an abstract noun** (§ 184). Thus:—

<i>Infinitive.</i>	Taking human life	} is homicide.
<i>Abstract Noun.</i>	The taking of human life	
<i>Infinitive.</i>	Walking rapidly	} is healthful exercise.
<i>Abstract Noun.</i>	Rapid walking	

EXERCISE 294.

Analyze the following sentences, **parse** the infinitives, and **explain** how each is modified:—

1. Strive to keep your appointments. 2. I have but a few more words to say. 3. Cease to do evil; learn to do well. 4. The mere fact of his father's paying the debt is no proof of its being a proper expenditure. 5. It was no easy task to bridge the chasm. 6. To profess and to possess are very different. 7. A grove near by

seemed to invite us to rest. 8. Let us prevent his anger by sacrificing ourselves. 9. The law is made to protect the innocent by punishing the guilty. 10. By observing truth we shall secure the respect of others. 11. He saw a star fall from heaven and vanish in utter darkness.

12. Shall you have time to come to bid us farewell? 13. Those only are fit to rule who have learned to obey. 14. Men love to be adored, but hate to be reprov'd. 15. I have an engagement which prevents my staying longer with you. 16. Their gratitude made them proclaim his goodness. 17. The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall attempt neither to palliate nor deny. 18. Never leave it to do to-morrow if it ought to be done to-day. 19. I love to note the break of spring that is to clothe the ground. 20. Buying goods on credit has caused him to fail. 21. I saw them come, but did not hear them go. 22. To live soberly and righteously is to be his motto.

23. I dare do all that may become a man ;
Who dares do more is none.

24. None knew thee but to love thee.

25. Let not Ambition mock their useful toil.

26. He, glad to hide his tell-tale cheek,
Hied back that glove of mail to seek.

27. Look in his face to meet thy neighbor's soul,
Not on his garments to detect a hole.

28. Sir Launfal flashed forth in his unscarred mail
To seek in all lands for the holy grail.

29. Oft has it been my lot to mark
A proud, conceited, talking spark.

30. There is never a blade or a leaf too mean
To be some happy creature's palace.

31. And fools who came to scoff remained to pray.

32. The very leaves seem to sing on the trees.

33. To be graduated with a college diploma without having entered into the true spirit of college life by bearing an active part in its manifold and stimulating experiences, is to have failed of securing the best results of the course.

573. SUMMARY: FORMS FOR PARSING.

Forms or Kinds.

is a	{	Simple	{	Infinitive; (or from) {	of {	Com.	{	Verb {
		Simple						
		{						
		Pro.						
		Pass.		(root- or in the		Tran.		
		Perfect		ing.)		Cop.		
		{						
		Pro.						
		Pass.						

Constructions.

1. **Subject** of the verb —.
- (a) Explanatory of the anticipative subject *it*.
2. **Subjective complement** of the verb —.
3. **Object** of the *verb* —.
4. **Object** of the *preposition* —.
5. Used **adjectively** { to modify the noun —.
as subjective complement of the verb —.
6. Used **adverbially** to modify the { verb —.
adjective —.
adverb —.
7. Used as **indirect predicate** of the object —.

C. ERRORS IN THE USE OF INFINITIVES.

574. *A modifier must not be used between to and the rest of the infinitive.*

Say "They meant never *to return*," not "They meant *to* never return."

575. *Avoid using to alone in place of an infinitive.*

Say "He has broken his word and is likely *to break* it again," not "— and is likely *to* again."

"Do as I told you," not "Do as I told you *to*."

576. *Avoid the use of "and" for to.*

Say "Come *to* see me," not "Come *and* see me"; "Try *to* do your best," not "Try *and* do your best."

577. *Do not use a perfect infinitive after a past tense when the simple form would express the meaning.*

Say "I intended *to go*," not "*to have gone*."

"We hoped *to be present*," not "*to have been present*."

"They expected *to arrive yesterday*," not "*to have arrived*."

EXERCISE 295.

Point out the error in each of these sentences, and tell what rule is violated:—

1. We ought to carefully avoid errors.
2. I have done every thing that you told me to.
3. We shall try and call upon you next week.
4. They had intended to have gone earlier.
5. He tried to not roil the water.
6. We were invited to go, but didn't wish to.
7. I hoped to have met several friends here.
8. They promised to eventually pay the debt, but they hoped to in some way escape.
9. I have not paid the bill, nor do I intend to.
10. I intended to have answered your letter more promptly.
11. He was not obliged to have gone with me.
12. I ought to at least apologize, but I do not mean to.

II. PARTICIPLES.

A. KINDS OR FORMS.

578. Nearly every verb has two simple participles named from their meaning—

- (1) The Present, Imperfect, or **Active** participle; as,—
driving, spinning, seeing, walking, sleeping; and —

- (2) The Past, Perfect, or **Passive** participle; as, —
driven, spun, seen, walked, slept.

579. In place of inflected forms we have four **participle-phrases**, — one formed with the *imperfect* participle, and three with the *perfect*. Thus: —

	ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.
<i>Imperfect.</i>	DRIVING	<i>Perfect.</i>	DRIVEN
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	having driven	<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	having been driven
<i>Progressive.</i>	having been driving	<i>Progressive.</i>	being driven

580. The **Present**¹ participle always ends in **ing**. It commonly represents an action or a condition as continuing or *imperfect*, and it is almost always *active*; that is, it refers to the *actor*. Thus: —

Vessels **carrying** coal are constantly **arriving**.

581. Since the infinitive in **ing** and the present participle have the same form (§ 555), we must decide by the construction whether the word is an adjective or a noun.

EXERCISE 296.

Distinguish the **infinitives** (or verbal nouns) from the **participles** (or verbal adjectives).

1. At the beginning of summer, when the planting was finished, we found the farming population busy with haying. 2. Some were looking forward to the time of harvesting the growing crops. 3. Others were eagerly awaiting the time, when, leaving their homes, the little company would go to mining among the hills. 4. Having been promised great wealth, they almost regretted having kept their farms so

¹ *To the Teacher.* — The names "present" and "past" are given only for convenience, for the so-called past participle often denotes a present condition; as, "He is gone"; "They are kept for use"; "How are the mighty fallen"; "They were addressed by one everywhere honored." And the actual time of either participle, of course, depends on that of the main verb; as in "The quantity of water *remaining* is, was, or will be *lessened*."

long, and were annoyed at being compelled to remain upon them longer.
5. But their expected fortunes never came.

582. The **Past** participle commonly ends in **en, ed, d,** or **t** (§ 410), and is generally *perfect*, representing an action or a condition as completed. When used alone it is almost always *passive*; that is, it refers, not to the actor, but to *what is acted upon*. Thus:—

The army, **beaten** but not **vanquished**, slowly fell back.

(a) When used in verb-phrases the past participle may be either active or passive. Thus:—

The thief has **broken** the law. The law has been **broken**.

(b) Participles of intransitive verbs of course are never passive.

B. USES, OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

583. The simple participles often lose their power to take complements and become merely descriptive or participial *adjectives*,—sometimes without much verbal meaning. [§ 330.] Thus:—

rustling leaves;	a raging sea;	a brightly shining star;
lost moments;	an interesting book;	closely woven cloth;
the drifting snow;	the past year;	a newly baked loaf.

These adjectives can easily be expanded into clauses.
Thus:—

rustling leaves = leaves **that rustle**.

EXERCISE 297.

Expand the adjectives in the preceding and in the following **examples to adjective clauses**.

1. A speaking likeness. 2. A sorely bereaved family. 3. Wounded soldiers. 4. A broken law. 5. The breaking waves. 6. Finely spun glass. 7. A stubbornly fought battle. 8. Deeply hidden meaning. 9. The living heroes. 10. The dancing sunbeams.

584. I. The simple participles are used as **Subjective Complements**, —

(a) *Of copulative verbs*: as, —

The flowers are **gone**. It seems **bewildering**.

(b) *Of verbs usually complete*. In such cases the participle has some adverbial meaning; as, —

Night came **stealing** on. The place lay **deserted** for years.

(c) *In forming verb-phrases* (§§ 445, 450); as, —

Lisbon was **destroyed** by an earthquake. It is **shaking**.

585. The simple participles are sometimes used as **Objective Complements**; as, —

Send the ball **rolling**. We shall keep you **occupied**.

EXERCISE 298.

Analyze the following sentences, and **parse** the participles. Thus: —

(The) engine sets (the) machinery (moving).

Moving is the simple active participle of the complete verb “move, moved, moved”; it is used as objective complement of the verb *sets*, modifying *machinery*.

1. The melancholy days are come. 2. I kept him working. 3. This noise is very confusing. 4. The mountain streams went babbling by. 5. Is not the breeze from the hills refreshing? 6. The fire was set burning by sparks from the engine. 7. The news set all the bells ringing. 8. How the train goes thundering along! 9. He lies wrapped in the flag he defended. 10. Her magnificent temples are turned into dust. 11. The children came rushing from the house, terrified and confused to hear such rumblings. 12. She stood enraptured at the sight while they lay sleeping. 13. My companions had kept me waiting, but I soon stood gazing from the summit. 14. I felt my pulse throbbing; and soon the sun disappeared, shrouded in hazy vapors.

586. II. Any participle may be added to a noun or a pronoun **appositively**. In such cases the idea would be more fully expressed, —

(1) *By an adjective clause ; as, —*

A farm { **sloping** to the south
that slopes to the south } is for sale.

The books { **bought** for the library
that were bought for the library } are burned.

(2) *By an adverb-clause denoting time, cause, etc. ; as, —*

Sitting there } I heard a brown thrush sing.
As I sat there }

The dog went home { **having lost** his master.
because he had lost his master.

(3) *By an independent statement ; as, —*

Reaching for the bell-rope, } I pulled it vigorously.
I reached for the bell-rope, and }

EXERCISE 299.

Analyze these sentences, and **parse** the participles. Change each participle-phrase to a clause that will give the meaning more explicitly. Thus:—

We took <the> path <leading to the summit>.

Leading is the simple active participle of the complete verb "lead, led, led," used to modify *path*. The adjective clause "which leads to the summit" may be substituted for the participle-phrase.

1. We found some old planks badly rotted by the weather.
2. The sun goes down, lengthening the shadows.
3. What wonder is it that the girl, lost in such dreamy fancies, did not hear you?
4. Even the special train despatched at two did not arrive till four.
5. Having often seen him passing, I reasoned that the nest was near.
6. She brought some images stolen from the tombs by Arabs.
7. Once possessed of that fortune, he would wish it to be greater.
8. Punished or unpunished, he will never be conquered.
9. Ten times conquered, still you may be victor.
10. She had kept the flowers over night, making the bouquet in the morning.

587. III. Any participle may be used with a noun or a pronoun in the **Absolute construction** (§ 231), the two together having the force of an adverb-clause. Thus:—

[*Quiet having been restored*], (the) speaker continued.

(a) Sometimes the participle is used in this way without a noun. Thus:—

Speaking generally, this never happens.

588. Participles used as Nouns. Participles, like other adjectives, are sometimes used alone and take the place of nouns. [Foot-note, page 195.] Thus:—

The **killed** and the **wounded**. The **living** and the **dying**.

EXERCISE 300.

- 1. Analyze** these sentences, and **parse** the participles.
- 2. Expand** the participle-phrases to clauses, and **explain the purpose of each clause**. Thus:—

[The sea being rough], we were forced [to go by rail].

Being is the present participle of the copulative verb "be, was, been." Used absolutely with *sea*, it makes an adverb-phrase equivalent to the clause, "Because the sea was rough," and shows why we were forced to go by rail.

1. The rain having ceased to fall, we look for a rainbow.
2. The weather permitting, we shall set out to-morrow.
3. And the rocks now slipping from beneath their feet, they still refused to flee.
4. He had everything to fear from poisonous plants, the very sight of dogwood being dangerous.
5. She sat by the window, the sash raised, and the wind blowing a gale.
6. The army was in Belgium, the fleet being in the Channel, as we have said.

589. Punctuation. RULE. — *Participle-phrases must generally be set off by commas unless used restrictively.*

For examples, see sentences in preceding Exercises.

[For errors in the use of participles, see § 464 and Exercises 89 and 90, Part I.]

590. SUMMARY: FORMS FOR PARSING.

Kinds or Forms.

— is an	{	Imperfect	{	(Active)	{	Part.; (or from)	{	of the	{	Com. Tran. Cop.	Verb	{	— — —
		Present Perf.											
		Progressive											
	{	Perfect	{	(Passive)									
		Present Perf.											
		Progressive											

Constructions.

1. **Modifies** the noun (or pronoun) —.
2. **Complement** of the verb — referring to —.
3. Used **absolutely** with the noun (or pronoun) —.

EXERCISE 301.

Analyze the following sentences, and **parse** the participles and infinitives. Expand participle-phrases to clauses, and tell how the clauses affect the meaning of the main statement.

1. The road, winding through a thick forest, leads to a park abounding in all kinds of game.
2. Hast thou a charm to stay the morning star in his steep course?
3. Taking my gun, I went to a neighboring wood to spend a few hours in recreation.
4. The gates of the city having been thrown open, the army entered without opposition.
5. This experience suggested to her the idea of writing a story describing life among the Indians.
6. Other things being equal, there is nothing to hinder your becoming learned.
7. In the morning early I called out my whole family to help at saving an after-growth of hay.
8. Athens saw them entering her gates and filling her academies.
9. The dinner-bell beginning to speak, I may as well hold my peace.
10. True politeness is the spirit of benevolence showing itself in a refined way.

11. I hold Shakespeare to be the greatest poet that ever lived.
12. "The heights by great men reached and kept
Were not attained by sudden flight."
13. To attempt to advise conceited people is like whistling against the wind.
14. Evil falls on him who goes to seek it.
15. Gone are the birds that were our summer guests.
16. His great work having been well done, he rests at last.
17. He that is good at making excuses is seldom good for anything else. Let him learn the luxury of doing good.
18. "True worth is in being, not seeming,
In doing, each day that goes by,
Some little good, not in dreaming
Of great things to do by and by."
19. It is well to think well; it is divine to act well.
20. England owes her liberties to her having been conquered by the Norman.
21. Eyes raised towards heaven are always beautiful, whatever they be.
22. There never has been a great and beautiful character which has not become so by filling well the ordinary and smaller offices appointed of God. Character is made up of small duties faithfully performed.
23. There is no dearth of charity in the world in giving; but there is comparatively little exercised in thinking and speaking.
24. Selfishness is making one's self the most important personage in the world. Happiness shared is perfected.
25. Silently to persevere in one's duty is the best answer to calumny.
26. You find yourself refreshed by the presence of cheerful people. Why not make an earnest effort to confer that pleasure on others?
27. Freedom's battle, once begun,
Bequeathed from bleeding sire to son,
Though baffled oft, is ever won.
28. Rest is not quitting the busy career;
Rest is the fitting of self to its sphere.
'Tis loving and serving the highest and best;
'Tis onwards! unswerving, and that is true rest.

CHAPTER XVI.

PHRASES, CLAUSES, AND COMBINED SENTENCES.

REVIEW EXERCISE. 302.

1. What are sentences? (§ 12.) 2. How are they divided with regard to kind? (§§ 16-19.) 3. How with regard to form? (§§ 94, 95, 305, 306.) 4. Define each kind. 5. What is a phrase? (§ 60.) 6. Name and define several kinds of phrases. (§§ 88, 131, 146, 518 (a), 519 (a).) 7. What is a clause? (§ 273.) 8. Name and define the kinds of clauses. (§§ 274, 282, 495.) 9. Name the modifiers of nouns and pronouns. (§§ 151, 274, 565, 554.) 10. Name the modifiers of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. (§§ 121 (b), 151, 494, 568, 584 (b).)

591. The Base of a Sentence. The *simple predicate* is always a verb or verb-phrase. The *subject*, *object*, or *subjective complement* may be —

1. **A Noun:** *Napoleon* overthrew the government, and became *Emperor*.

2. **A Pronoun:** *They* released *us*. Debtors are *those* in debt.

3. **An Adjective**, [as *Subjective Complement* only]: They are *silent*.

4. **A Phrase:** $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{Out of sight is out of mind.} \\ \textit{To be absent is to be forgotten.} \\ \textit{His keeping busy prevented his being homesick.} \\ \textit{They will be in search of work.} \end{array} \right.$

5. **A Noun-clause:** $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{What I learn cannot be taken from me.} \\ \textit{We know that life is uncertain.} \\ \textit{The fact is that he is totally blind.} \end{array} \right.$

6. **A Quotation:** $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{"I still live"} \text{ was the last that he said.} \\ \textit{His dying words were, "Don't give up the ship."} \\ \textit{Galileo exclaimed, "It does move."} \end{array} \right.$

(a) The subject in imperative sentences is generally omitted. *You*, *thou*, or *ye* may be supplied in analyzing.

592. Modifiers. Besides the modifiers named in § 151,

I. A *noun* or a *pronoun* may be modified by —

1. **A Participle** { **word:** They found him *wounded* and *dying*.
phrase: Some frail memorial, *still erected nigh*.
2. **An Infinitive-phrase:** A plan *to light the streets cheaply*.
3. **An Adjective clause:** Those *that think* govern those *that toil*.
4. **An Appositive Noun-clause:** Prove the *fact | that it is so*.
5. **An Explanatory Noun-clause:** *It is true that air has weight*.

593. II. A *verb*, *infinitive*, *participle*, *adjective*, or *adverb* may be modified by —

1. **An Infinitive** { **word:** Let the prisoner *go*.
phrase: { We came *to demand our rights*.
The land is pleasant *to live in*.
2. **An Adverb-clause:** Stand *wherever you like*.

594. Compound Elements. Any element in a sentence, whether a part of the base or a modifier, may be compounded of two or more simple elements usually joined by conjunctions. Thus: —

In Him we *live* and *move*. He is both *wise* and *good*.
Speak *firmly* but *kindly*. Learn *who he is* and *where he is*.

EXERCISE 303.

Analyze these sentences, and show which elements of each sentence are compound: —

1. There health and plenty cheered the laboring swain.
2. Regular and daily exercise was the origin and secret of his health.
3. Gayly rode the hunters through the valleys or over the hills.
4. Love for study, a desire to do right, and care in the choice of friends were traits of his character.
5. We were deeply impressed by the majesty and sublimity of the cataract and its surroundings.
6. Which would they choose, to live at peace with none, or to die at peace with all?
7. Either sooner or later temperance fortifies and purifies the heart.
8. Make the house where gods may dwell, beautiful, entire, and clean.

595. Clauses. The different kinds of clauses must be carefully distinguished, and their connection with the rest of the sentence indicated clearly. The following forms may be used:—

- | | | | | |
|----|---|--|---|--|
| I. | { | — is an Adjective clause (ajc) modifying the noun (or pronoun) —. | { | 1. The relative pronoun <i>who, which, that, as</i> . |
| | | The <i>clause-connective</i> is | { | 2. The conjunctive adverbs <i>where, when, whence, why, etc.</i> |
-
- | | | | | |
|-----|---|--|---|--|
| II. | { | — is an Adverb-clause (avc) modifying the verb (adj. or adv.) — by denoting <i>time, place, cause, manner, comparison, condition, concession, purpose, etc.</i> | { | 1. The conj. adv. <i>where, when, while, whence, as, etc.</i> |
| | | The <i>clause-connective</i> is | { | 2. The sub. conj. <i>till, before, after, if, for, because, as, than, that, etc.</i> |
-
- | | | | | |
|------|---|--|---|---|
| III. | { | — is a
Noun-clause (nc);
used | { | 1. As <i>subject</i> of the verb —. |
| | | | { | 2. As <i>object</i> of the verb —. |
| | | | { | 3. As <i>object</i> of the prep. —. |
| | | | { | 4. As <i>subjective complement</i> of —. |
| | | | { | 5. In <i>apposition</i> with the noun —. |
| | | | { | 6. To <i>explain the anticipative subject</i> (or object) <i>it</i> . |
-
- | | | | | |
|--|---|---------------------------------|---|--|
| | { | The <i>clause-connective</i> is | { | 1. The conj. pro. <i>what, whatever, whoever, etc.</i> |
| | | | { | 2. The conj. adv. <i>how, why, when, where, etc.</i> |
| | | | { | 3. The sub. conj. <i>that</i> or <i>whether</i> . |

596. In studying selections for analysis and parsing, observe the following directions:—

1. Consult the dictionary for the meaning of unfamiliar words.
2. Transpose the words into their common prose order, unless the construction seems clear to you.

3. Select the clauses and show how each is used.
4. Classify the sentence and analyze each part of it.

EXERCISE 304.

1. Classify the clauses in these sentences, and show, according to the preceding forms, **how each is used.**

2. Parse the clause-connectives.

1. We acquire the strength that we overcome. 2. O Solitude! where are the charms that sages have seen in thy face? 3. Life is what we make it. 4. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty. 5. What pleases you will please me. 6. The fact is that he has betrayed my confidence. 7. He knew not that the chieftain lay unconscious of his son. 8. It is in vain that you seek to escape.

9. While he slept the enemy came. 10. What he spake, though it lacked form a little, was not madness. 11. All that he does is to distribute what others produce. 12. He that fights and runs away may live to fight another day. 13. The best of what we do and are is poor enough. 14. I thank God that I never hated any man because he was poor or because he was ignorant. 15. A great many men, if put into the right position, would be Luthers or Columbuses. 16. No wonder you are deaf to all I say. 17. He whistled as he went, for want of thought. 18. Nothing waxeth old sooner than a good turn or a favor. 19. When faith is lost, when honor dies, the man is dead. 20. Be silent, or say something better than silence. 21. Patience is so like Fortitude, that she seems either her sister or her daughter.

22. His misery was such that none of his friends could refrain from weeping. 23. What stronger breastplate than a heart untainted? 24. Thrice is he armed who hath his quarrel just; and he but naked, though locked up in steel, whose conscience with injustice is corrupted. 25. Still the wonder grew that one small head could carry all he knew. 26. When Strength and Justice are true yoke-fellows, where can be found a mightier pair than they? 27. You will gain a good reputation, if you endeavor to be what you desire to appear. 28. He made it clear that the plan was impossible. 29. He felt as though himself were he on whose sole arm hung victory.

30. Whoever thinks a faultless piece to see,
Thinks what ne'er was, nor is, nor e'er shall be.

EXERCISE 305.

Analyze the following sentences, **classifying the clauses**, and **parsing the words**:—

1. To dare is great, but to bear is greater. 2. Write it on your heart that every day is the best day of the year. 3. Heaven is for those who think of it. 4. Live as though life were earnest, and life will be so. 5. Sweet it is to have done the thing one ought. 6. He that loveth makes his own the grandeur that he loves. 7. "Don't cross the bridge till you come to it" is a proverb old and of excellent wit. 8. There's nothing so contagious as pure openness of heart. 9. Who does the best his circumstance allows, does well, acts nobly; angels could do no more. 10. He is not worthy of the honeycomb that shuns the hives because the bees have stings.

11. Find thou always time to say some earnest word between the idle talk. 12. Duties are ours, but events are God's. 13. Brooding all day will not arm a man against misery. 14. Nothing that is shall perish utterly. 15. There's nothing but what's bearable as long as a man can work. 16. It is better to fight for the good than to rail at the ill. 17. Love all, trust a few, do wrong to none. 18. Corn growing, larks singing, garden full of flowers, fresh air on the sea—O, it is wonderful! 19. We always may be what we might have been. 20. It isn't so much what a man has that makes him happy, as it is what he doesn't want.

21. We are made happy by what we are, not by what we have. 22. A man's reach should exceed his grasp, or what's heaven for? 23. It's very easy finding reasons why other folks should be patient. 24. Who laughs at crooked men needs walk very straight. 25. We are such stuff as dreams are made of, and our little life is rounded with a sleep. 26. He who neglects the present moment throws away all he has. 27. "One soweth and another reapeth" is a verity that applies to evil as well as good. 28. Rich gifts wax poor when givers prove unkind. 29. Said he, "All that I am, my mother made me." 30. Since my country calls me, I obey. 31. The days are made on a loom whereof the warp and woof are past and future time. 32. Let me make the songs of a people, and I care not who makes the laws.

33. Words pass as wind, but where great deeds were done

A power abides, transfused from sire to son.

Selections for Analysis and Parsing.¹

1. Attention is the stuff that memory is made of, and memory is accumulated genius.

2. Wise sayings often fall on barren ground; but a kind word is never thrown away.

3. A great writer has said that grace is beauty in action: I say that justice is truth in action.

4. How easy it is for one benevolent being to diffuse pleasure around him; and how truly is a kind heart a fountain of gladness, making everything in its vicinity freshen into smiles.

5. If we do not plant knowledge when young, it will give us no shade when we are old.

6. To know by rote is no knowledge; it is only a retention of what is intrusted to the memory. What a man truly knows may be disposed of without regard to the author, or reference to the book whence he had it.

7. Alexander the Great, reflecting on his friends' degenerating into sloth and luxury, told them that it was a most slavish thing to luxuriate, and a most royal thing to labor.

8. Oh, what a glory doth this world put on for him who, with a fervent heart, goes forth under the bright and glorious sky!

9. Few men learn the highest use of books. After life-long study many a man discovers too late that to have had the philosopher's stone availed nothing without the philosopher to use it.

10. If the poor and humble toil that we may have food, must not the high and glorious toil for him in return, that he have light, guidance, freedom, immortality.

11. Words are the leaves of the tree of knowledge, of which, if some fall away, a new succession takes their place.

12. The busy world shoves angrily aside
The man who stands with arms akimbo set,
Until the occasion tells him what to do;
And he who waits to have his task marked out
Shall die and leave his errand unfulfilled.

¹ *To the Teacher.* — Other sentences for analysis and parsing may be found in Part I., pages 8-10; 20-22; 24-29; 104-108. All school readers of course furnish abundant and varied material for practice.

13. Failure after long perseverance is much grander than never to have a striving good enough to be called a failure.

14. When the Breton sailor puts to sea, his prayer is, "Keep me, my God, for my boat is so small and Thy ocean is so wide."

15. 'Tis greatly wise to talk with our past hours,
And ask them what report they bore to heaven.

16. The happiest man is he who, being above the troubles which money brings, has his hands the fullest of work.

17. It is seldom that we find how great a man is until he dies.

18. Nine times out of ten, the best thing that can happen to a young man is to be tossed overboard and compelled to sink or swim for himself. In all my acquaintance I never knew a man to be drowned who was worth the saving.

19. If the way in which men express their thoughts is slipshod and mean, it will be very difficult for their thoughts themselves to escape being the same.

20. Learn from the earliest days to inure your principles against the perils of ridicule; you can no more exercise your reason, if you live in the constant dread of laughter, than you can enjoy your life if you are in the constant terror of death.

21. Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing, onward through life he goes;
Each morning sees some task begin, each evening sees its close;
Something attempted, something done, has earned a night's
repose.

22. For manhood is the one immortal thing
Beneath Time's changeful sky,
And, where it lightened once, from age to age,
Men come to learn, in grateful pilgrimage,
That length of days is knowing when to die.

23. Press on! surmount the rocky steeps;
Climb boldly o'er the torrent's arch:
He fails alone who feebly creeps;
He wins who dares the hero's march.
Be thou a hero! let thy might
Tramp on eternal snows its way,
And through the ebon walls of night,
Hew down a passage unto day.

Faulty Sentences for Correction.

1. It don't make any difference whether he go or stay. § 477.
2. I begun at once to follow his advice. § 464.
3. No sound but that of their own voices were heard. § 477.
4. The army were led into the defile. § 481.
5. Somebody told me, but I forget whom. § 318.
6. Each plant and tree produce others of their kind. §§ 313, 483.
7. He will receive his father and brother's property. § 217.
8. Love of drink is of all other habits the most dangerous. § 365.
9. I met a woman whom I supposed to be she. § 322.
10. Not a person dared raise their voice against it. § 312.
11. This man with his sons were founders of a nation. § 477.
12. Who should I meet but an old classmate. § 319.
13. This is the same matter which I spoke of. § 323.
14. He is one of the wisest men that has ever lived. § 477.
15. Whom do people say that he is? § 318.
16. I do not think the court right in their verdict. § 316.
17. We soon found the spot in which the treasure laid. § 466.
18. Return before it (is, be) too late. § 474.
19. Who none but you and I shall hear. § 319.
20. He comes; nor want nor cold his course delay. § 484.
21. His wealth and not his talents attract attention. § 487.
22. I do not know whether he is there now or no. § 366.
23. I would like to know whose book this is. § 472.
24. He did no more than it was his duty to have done. § 577.
25. Neither of them are better than they ought to be. §§ 312, 477.
26. There were no less than a thousand lost. Pt. I. § 93.
27. Will we forget the deeds of these heroes? § 471.
28. I do not doubt but that I shall see him to-morrow. § 545.
29. A certain person that I could name if it was necessary. § 475.
30. There is sometimes more than one auxiliary to a verb. § 477.
31. Neither men or money (was, were) wanting. §§ 485, 545.
32. Sense, not riches, win esteem. § 487.
33. We will soon be able to answer the question. § 469.
34. This long task or ours is now most done. Pt. I. § 93.
35. I do not know whom you profess to be. § 318.

36. What signifies promises without performance? § 477.
37. The angles of this triangle are equal to each other. § 326.
38. These are the officers which I have chosen. § 323.
39. I intended to have written on the subject. § 577.
40. That is a remarkable large trout you have. § 366.
41. If he know the way he needs no guide. § 475 (a).
42. Would that my brother was here. § 475.
43. Nothing but a few ruins remain to mark the spot. § 477.
44. This construction sounds rather harshly. § 513.
45. Such a man as him would never say so. § 318.
46. Try and do what you can to make others happy. § 576.
47. If the boat had have come, we should have went. §§ 439, 464
48. If I had done it I (would, should) apologize. § 469.
49. It is doubtful if the people are aware of this. § 545.
50. They had very different plans than those I suggested. § 525.
51. This is the Merchants' and Traders' Bank. § 217.
52. I would like to call your attention to this. § 472.
53. This picture will look very differently in another light. § 513
54. Not an European was present. § 357.
55. In reading you should sit as uprightly as possible. § 513.
56. He had a large and a finely-shaped head. § 358.
57. Do you think these kind of amusements harmless? § 359.
58. This blunder is actually said to have occurred. Pt. I. § 95.
59. This we will have occasion to use hereafter. § 469.
60. The rise and fall of nations are an interesting study. § 483.
61. Which is the largest, the antecedent or the consequent? § 364.
62. Every thought and feeling are opposed to it. § 483.
63. Ain't that gent with specs on him? Yes, thanks. Pt. I. § 89.
64. It must be very pleasant to travel like he does. § 545.
65. He thought himself quite a scholar. Pt. I. § 93.
66. I meant to have written to you last week. § 577.
67. I do not wish for any help yet. § 526.
68. I won't have time to see him to-morrow. § 469.
69. There is a misunderstanding between him and I. § 319.
70. Time and chance happeneth to all men. § 477.
71. He ought to have learned you better. Pt. I. § 92.
72. A nation has no right to violate their treaties. § 316.
73. Hadn't we ought to invert the divisor? Pt. I. § 90.

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